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CAWNPORE

A GAZETTEER

BEING

VOLUME XIX

OF THE

DISTRICT GAZETTEERS OF THE UNITED PROVINCES
OF AGRA AND OUDH.

BY

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PREFACE.

The old Gazetteer of Cawnpore was compiled by Mr. E. T. Atkinson, mainly from materials supplied by Mr. F. Nelson Wright and Mr. H. C. Conybeare. Since its publication in 1881 the district, and particularly the city of Cawnpore, has undergone great changes, and it has been found possible to make but little use of the former volume in preparing the present work. I have derived much assistance from the assessment and settlement reports of Mr. H. K. Gracey, and from notes furnished by Mr. L. M. Stubbs, while I am greatly indebted to Mr. W. E. M. Campbell for the help he has given me in the matter of fresh information and in revising the proofs.

NAINI TAL :

October 1908.

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H. R. N.

GAZETTEER OF CAWNPORE.

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ABBREVIATIONS.

J. R. A. S.—Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society.

J. A. S. B.—Journal of the Bengal Asiatic Society.

C. R. A. S.—Cunningham's Archæological Survey Reports.

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GAZETTEER OF CAWNPORE.

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CHAPTER I.

GENERAL FEATURES.

The district of Cawnpore, properly spelled Kanpur or ^{Bound-}Kanhpur, occupies the north-western corner of the Allahabad ^{aries and} division, and belongs to the tract known as the lower Doab, this comprising the eastern extremity of the strip of country lying between the Ganges and Jumna rivers. In shape it is an irregular quadrilateral, the angles being situated north, east, south and west: the greatest breadth from north to south is about seventy, and the extreme length from east to west about sixty-four miles. These extremities are marked by the parallels of $25^{\circ}26'$ and $26^{\circ}58'$ north latitude and $79^{\circ}31'$ and $80^{\circ}34'$ east longitude. To the north-east beyond the Ganges, of which the deep stream forms the boundary, lie the Oudh districts of Hardoi and Unao, while to the south across the Jumna are Hamirpur and Jalaun. On the south-east the boundary marches with the Khajurha tahsil of Fatehpur, and to the west and north-west are the Auraiya tahsil of the Etawah district and those of Tirwa and Kanauj in Farrukhabad. The total area of the district is liable to vary with the alterations in the courses of the Ganges and Jumna, these being important only in the case of the former, though even there they are relatively insignificant save in a few localities. Taking an average of the returns of the five years ending with 1906-07, we obtain a total of 1,511,461 acres or 2361.66 square miles.

In its general aspect the district resembles the rest of the Doab, constituting an alluvial plain which slopes gently from north-west to south-east, the gradient following the line of the principal rivers. The interior surface is rendered slightly undulating by reason of the numerous minor watersheds that separate the subsidiary drainage lines, and which have the same general trend towards the south-east. The sectional contour is practically identical throughout the Doab, the level rising sharply from the Ganges bed to the crest of the high cliff, and then sloping gently towards the centre, beyond which it again ascends to the ridge overlooking the valley of

the Jumna. The same thing occurs on a miniature scale in the case of the lesser rivers within the district, though, where the stream has a small volume and velocity, the change in the level is hardly perceptible, and the sequence of the characteristic phenomena of the various belts is very ill-defined.

The slope of the country is well illustrated by the recorded heights along the course of the Cawnpore branch of the Ganges canal, which closely follows the line of the main water-parting. The level drops gradually from 451 feet at the point where the canal first enters the district in the extreme north to about 440 feet on the northern boundary of the Sheorajpur tahsil, to 430 feet at Karsauli on the borders of tahsil Cawnpore, and to 420 feet at the junction with the Fatehpur branch. The fall continues in a similar manner along the grand trunk road to the south-east of Cawnpore, which stands at about 412 feet above the sea, being 400 feet at Maharajpur and 395·5 feet at the point of exit from the district. The centre of the Doab is naturally lower than the Ganges bank, but the same gradations of level are to be observed throughout. The Jumna high bank is somewhat less elevated than that of the Ganges, as there is a secondary slope from north to south, this being the case in almost every part of Gangetic plain; and in this connection it is noteworthy that the latter river flows at a much higher level than the Jumna, the bed of which is eighty feet or more below the edge of the central tabeland as compared with fifty feet or less in the case of the Ganges.

Rivers.

This and other kindred factors combine to render the rivers the dominant influence in the configuration of the district, since the level depends on the position of the water-parting in each tract and on the level depends the nature of the soil. As a matter of fact the Ganges and Jumna, the great rivers of the district, directly affect but a small portion of the area, inasmuch as both are flanked by high banks, the crest of which in either case is well above the general level of the interior: and consequently they receive but a minute proportion of the drainage apart from that carried down by the few steamers that effect a breach in these outer ramparts. This is the general rule throughout the Doab, the various tracts and soils, save on the extreme flanks, being determined by the character and course of the subsidiary drainage channels.

The Ganges flows along the north-eastern and eastern Ganges. boundary of the district for its entire length, skirting the tahsils of Bilhaur, Sheorajpur, Cawnpore and Narwal. It has a wide and sandy bed, in which the stream rolls from side to side, changing its channel almost every year as the sand-banks are formed or washed away. In the rains the Ganges is of immense breadth; but during the cold weather the river shrinks to comparatively small dimensions, the reduction of the volume being greatly increased by the diversion of its waters into the many canals it supplies. This cause also has resulted in the deterioration of the river as a means of communication, although it still bears a considerable number of country boats with a small draught and a light tonnage. Along its banks there is generally a narrow strip of recent alluvium, but in most cases the soil is almost pure sand and the agricultural value of these *kultris* is practically insignificant. In the Cawnpore tahsil, however, between Bitlur and the headquarters station, lies a wide stretch of low-lying ground, wholly alluvial in character and probably representing a former bed of the river, but now raised beyond the reach of ordinary floods; it is designated *kachhar* and is a highly fertile tract, bearing the best crops without irrigation. Above the sandy foreshore rises the Ganges cliff, which consists of a high ridge running in an almost continuous line throughout the district, but broken by innumerable ravines that carry the drainage down to the river. This cliff varies in height and abruptness, standing out in fine bluffs at Durgapur in pargana Sheorajpur and at the old town of Jajman, while elsewhere it is often little more than a series of undulations alternating with more or less level patches of poor cultivation. Owing to constant erosion and denudation the soil has everywhere become impoverished and is of a hard and gritty nature, rapidly caking when left untilled for even a short period, its value as arable land being further reduced by the absence of irrigation owing to the great depth of the water level.

The direct tributaries of the Ganges within the limits of Isan. this district are two in number. The first is the Isan, a river of considerable magnitude which has its origin in the south-east of Aligarh, and thence flows through Etah, Mainpuri and Farrukhabad, entering this district in the extreme

north, a short distance from Makanpur. Here its course lies wholly in the Bilhaur tahsil, for it maintains a south-easterly direction and cuts through the high bank to join the Ganges at Mahgawan, after a winding course of about thirteen miles. The Isan flows through a wide and sandy valley, inundated every year during the rains and bordered by broken sandy hillocks, those on the north bank usually rising with a gentle slope, while on the south they are steep, and in places form regular cliffs intersected by deep ravines that in one or two cases extend inland for several miles.

Non.

The other is the Non, not to be confounded with the river of the same name in the south of the district. The appellation obviously refers to the brackish nature of its waters, a phenomenon which doubtless arises from the prevalence of the saline efflorescences known as *reh*, which abounds in the low swampy tract on the northern borders of the Bilhaur tahsil, where the river takes its rise. This area known in former days as the Jhabargaon or fen country, is full of large shallow swamps, from which the overflow makes its way southwards to form the Non, though the river does not assume a definite channel till it enters Sheorajpur. At first of insignificant dimensions, it gradually gains in importance, and after crossing the grand trunk road it possesses a deep valley with wide expanses of broken ground on either side, the ravines increasing in number and depth as the river approaches its confluence with the Ganges just below Bithur.

Pandu.

The third tributary of the Ganges is the Pandu; but this does not join the latter river till after its exit from the district, the junction taking place in Fatehpur some three miles beyond the Cawnpore border. The Pandu rises in Farrukhabad and enters this district near the village of Naila in tahsil Bilhaur, thence flowing with a tortuous course, but generally maintaining a direction parallel to that of the Ganges. It traverses the tahsils of Bilhaur, Sheorajpur, Cawnpore and Narwal, and after passing into Fatehpur it turns back sharply to the north-east, forming the district boundary for several miles before bending eastwards again towards the Ganges. During its course the river receives a considerable amount of drainage, being fed by several small tributaries such as the Nai in Bilhaur, the Laukha in Sheorajpur, the Bhoni in the extreme south of Cawnpore and the Paghaiya and Bhorni in Narwal.

The addition of its volume is marked by an increased depth of bed and the influence it exerts upon the land in its vicinity. The latter at first is but small, since the river carves for itself a well-defined channel through hard loam soil in a fairly level country; but near the northern border of the Cawnpore tahsil the soil becomes somewhat more sandy, and on entering that sub-division there appears a constantly widening belt of undulating ground along its banks, characterised by a peculiar reddish colour. In Narwal these features become more pronounced, and in the last few miles the banks of the river are wide stretches of mingled sand and broken waste, altogether valueless for cultivation, the stream flowing at a great depth below the general level of the country.

The remaining rivers belong to the Jumna system, so Rind. that strictly speaking the central water-parting may be said to lie between the Pandu and the next river to the west. This is the Rind, or Arind as it is sometimes called a stream of strong individuality and possessed in ancient days, it would appear, of a reputation for sanctity, if any such conclusion may be formed from the series of old Hindu temples which mark the lower part of its course. These temples, which are very numerous in Fatehpur, where they are attributed to the Gautam Rajas of Argal, are popularly supposed to have been built at every *kos* along the river. The Rind, like the Isan, has its source in Aligarh, and before entering this district traverses Etah, Mainpuri, Farrukhabad and Etawah, first touching Cawnpore near the village of Nar. Passing through the tahsils of Derapur and Akbarpur, it then separates the latter and Ghatampur from Sheorajpur and Cawnpore, and finally makes its way through the south-west of Narwal into the Fatehpur district, where it falls into the Jumna. The course of the river is surprisingly tortuous, its length in this district being 105 miles, though in a direct line from entry to exit the distance is not more than 55 miles: and for this reason its name is fancifully derived from the word *rind*, meaning a man of crooked ways and bad character. The river has a deep bed, its banks on either side being scored by ravines which increase in wildness and abruptness as the stream proceeds through the district. In many places they are clothed with *dhak* jungle; but this gives place in the lower reaches to a scanty scrub, the riverain tract in Narwal being

designated *behar*, a term that is also applied to the ravine country of the Sengar and Jumna. Beyond the ravines lies a belt of distinctly red soil, the peculiar characteristic of this river: in composition it is a sandy loam of high fertility, free from *usar* and irrigated from wells sunk to a depth of 25 or 30 feet below the surface. The tributaries of the Rind are few in number and all of them join it on the left bank, indicating the southern slope of the country from the central water-parting. The chief are the Siyari, rising in the Etawah district, and draining the extreme north of Derapur and the western corner of Billaur; the Chihoha and its many little affluents, such as the Chharaiya and Nariya, which carry off the overflow from the depressions in western Billaur and are dry save in the rains; the Supa, which rises near Nonari Bahadurpur and joins the river close to the large village of Kashipur; and a few minor watercourses in the Cawnpore and Narwal tahsils, such as the Satbidhai, Matru and Gadraba.

Sengar.

The next river is the Sengar, a stream of considerable magnitude which has its origin near Aligarh, and after passing through Etah, Mainpuri and Etawah enters the Derapur tahsil on its western border, traversing that subdivision and flowing close to the town of Derapur. Thence turning in a southeasterly direction, it forms for some miles the boundry between Akbarpur and Bhognipur, eventually bending southwards through the latter tahsil near Muhammadpur to join the Jumna at Keotra, a short distance above Musanagar. Here and there along the river are to be found narrow strips of alluvial *tarai*, and where it approaches the confluence the belt of deposit stretches out into wide *kachhar* of high agricultural value, owing to the waters of the Sengar being held up by the greater volume of the Jumna. Apart from these the banks of the river are steep and rugged throughout its course in this district, and the extent of broken and unculturable land is much greater than is the case along the Rind. Many of the countless ravines stretch inland for a distance of several miles, although the ravine belt is on an average not more than a mile in width on either side. The country along the river is desolate in the extreme, being generally devoid of vegetation or else covered with a poor growth of worthless scrub. The Sengar receives several unimportant tributaries on its left bank, the largest being the Dharia, Ratwaha and the Liljhi,

which drain the centre of Derapur : though containing water only in the rains, they have deep channels, flanked by broken and almost sterile land.

The Non takes its rise in several large depressions in the low central and southern tracts of the Akbarpur tahsil, and the surplus drainage finds its way southwards by several channels which unite on the Ghatampur border. The western drainage is known as the Neor, and originates in a swamp at Tilaunchi, while the Non proper is formed by the junction of two water-courses, one of which has its source at Rasulpur Gogamau and the other near Nariha to the north of Akbarpur. Another confluent rises at Manethu and flows south-westwards to join the Non near Nandana in the north of Ghatampur. The combined stream takes a southerly course through the latter tahsil till it approaches within three miles of the Jumna, and then bends south-eastwards, in a direction almost parallel to that river, eventually passing into the Fatehpur district near Baripal, about 10 miles above its confluence. The bed of the Non is at first shallow and ill-defined, its banks being of an alluvial nature and cultivated up to the water's edge, although in many places the soil is impregnated with *reh*, from which fact the river derives its name. Further south, in Ghatampur, the channel becomes deeper, and the *tarai* gives place to an ever-broadening expanse of broken country, with a soil impoverished by erosion and rapid drainage, while in several cases the ravines are fully as great as those along the Jumna.

One other tributary of the Jumna deserves mention, although it is often described as a *jhil* rather than a river. This is the Sonao, a broad depression that traverses the extreme west of the Bhognipur tahsil, maintaining a course parallel to the Jumna at a distance of two or three miles from that river, of which it very probably represents an abandoned channel. In its upper portion the depression is extensively cultivated, and is flanked by gently sloping banks of sand and gravel; but further eastwards these become more defined and the watercourse in the centre steadily expands, cultivation disappears, and in the last few miles above its junction with the Jumna near Khartala the Sonao has all the characteristics of an ordinary ravine.

Jumna.

The Jumna first touches this district in the extreme west of Bhognipur and maintains a south-easterly course, varied by many loops and bends, as far as the southern extremity of Ghatampur, in the interval forming the boundary between Cawnpore and the Bundelkhand districts of Jalaun and Hamirpur, between which lies the small state of Baoni. The river here possesses all the characteristics that distinguish it throughout its course from Agra to its confluence with the Ganges. The bed is at a great depth below the level of the country to the north, and in places there are considerable stretches of fertile alluvial soil between the river and the high bank. The lowest levels, which are annually submerged, go by the name of *tir*, and above this lies an uneven stretch of *kachhar*, in most cases of a permanent nature and of high fertility. The bank itself rises to a height of 60 feet or more above the stream and is broken by immense ravines, of which the influence extends inland for four or five miles. The country on the crest of the bank is of the most unpromising description and the soil is either sand or gravel, interspersed with the varieties ordinarily found in Bundelkhand on the southern bank. All the country along the Jumna is barren and rugged in the extreme, infested by wild animals and in former days notorious as the haunt of robbers, Chaparghata on the old Mughal road being proverbially dangerous for travellers. These characteristics are most prominent in Bhognipur, for in the Ghatampur tahsil the bank is less abrupt and the ravines less extensive, while in the large bend between Ghausganj and Garahtha the high bank gives place to a broad depression, possibly representing a former channel like the Sonao. In this tahsil, too, the area of *kachhar* is seldom important, while at Akbarpur Birbal the land along the river is a mere stretch of useless sand covered with tamarisk and grass jungle.

Ganges-
Pandu
tract.

From the foregoing account it will be seen that the rivers divide the district into a series of more or less parallel *Doabs*, each possessing distinguishing characteristics of its own. Beginning from the north, the first is the narrow strip of land between the Ganges and the Isan, a fairly level tract with a light but not unfertile loam soil, when removed from the influence of the rivers, and highly cultivated by Kurmis, whose presence has given to this part of the country the

name of the Kurmiat. Next comes the long and narrow strip between the Isan and the Ganges on the east and the Pandu on the west, extending for the whole length of the district and broken only by the small valley of the Non and a few minor watercourses. In the north it is a level expanse of good loam, sandy towards the Isan, but stiffening into clay, interspersed with numerous patches of *usar*, in the swampy depression that forms the source of the Non. South of this depression lies a stretch of firm loam, which in the Cawnpore tahsil assumes a softer and sandier character, with a slightly pink tinge; while in Narwal it again reverts to the consistent upland loam of the north, although there is a considerable lack of homogeneity owing to the appearance of scattered blocks of sand, *usar* and swamp. On either side of this Doab the transition from the hard and gritty soil of the Ganges cliff on the one hand to the undulating banks of the Pandu on the other is very gradual, in some places the influence of the rivers extending far inland, while elsewhere the good soil reaches to the very edge of the uplands.

The next tract, between the Pandu and the Rind, similarly stretches throughout the entire district. In the north there is very little difference in the soil on either side of the Pandu, as that river has but a shallow channel and produces little effect on the land in its neighbourhood; but the fertile loam of the east bank soon gives place to a broad expanse of level country in which the dominant feature is the immense amount of *usar*, chequered by blocks of cultivation and dotted with shallow *jhils*. This tract, of great width in Bilhaur but narrowing southwards till it disappears in Sheorajpur, is succeeded by the red sandy loam of the Rind valley, which comprises almost all the remainder of the *doab*, though isolated blocks of grey loam and *usar* occur again in Cawnpore and Narwal.

South of the Rind lies a broader strip of country, extending as far as the Sengar in the west, but further east reaching to the banks of the Jumna. The western portion, comprising the bulk of the Derapur tahsil and about half of Akbarpur, is a level tract of loam, lighter than in the country to the east and less marred by *usar*. The latter is fairly common but of a less malignant character, and in places it is covered with *dhak* jungle. In Derapur there is some lack of natural

Pandu-
Rind
tract.

Rind-
Sengar
tract.

drainage and swamps are fairly common; but further to the south-east there are few traces of clay. Towards the Sengar the soil is of a peculiar pinkish colour, and this extends to the very edge of the ravines. In the centre and south of Akbarpur the level drops and the rich loam changes into a stiff, ill-drained and swampy soil, subject to waterlogging, full of *usar* and from time to time infested by *kans* and noxious weeds. This extends into the north of Ghatampur and the parts of Bhognipur to the east of the Sengar; but further south it changes into a light loam belt variegated in places, and particularly to the east of the Non, by stretches of *usar* and occasional sandy ridges.

Sengar-
Jumna
tract.

The remaining portion of the district comprises the country between the Sengar and the Jumna, for the most part a level upland with a loam soil that merges gradually into the riverain belts on either side. The only trace of *usar* is to be found in an irregular line extending north-westwards from Pukhrayan, and there is a marked absence of depressions with the single exception of the Sonao. The soil is of a superior description in the north and rapidly deteriorates towards the Jumna, but the whole tract suffers from defective natural means of irrigation by reason of the great depth of the water-level, although the recent extensions of the canal have brought about an immense improvement in the agricultural conditions of the country.

Soils.

The soils found in the district exhibit a great variety of composition and appearance, but on the whole they differ little from those found through the middle and lower Doab. The diversity is due mainly to the influence of the various rivers, and partly to the presence along the course of the Jumna of the peculiar soils of Bundelkhand. The riverain strips comprise over one-fifth of the total area, and their characteristics have been already described. The Bundelkhand soils deserve more particular mention. On the edges of the ravines is found a gravelly soil called *rakar*, interspersed with sandy patches of *bhura*, or else with more or less level stretches of the sticky black clay known as *kabar*, which dries very rapidly into an extremely hard surface, deeply fissured in all directions and wholly intractable unless well moistened. Above the ravines is found *parwa*, reddish and somewhat

brittle soil with a considerable admixture of sand, and often resembling a light loam. The well-known *mar* or black cotton soil seldom occurs, and is confined to a few isolated fields above the ravines in Ghatampur. The bulk of the district, however, consists of the ordinary Doab soils known by their usual names: *bhur* or sand on the ridges, *matiar* or clay in the depressions and *dumat* or loam on the level. The last varies endlessly, according to the proportion of sand in its composition. The nature and colour of the sand again differ widely, for besides the common grey *dumat* there is the pink or red loam of the Rind valley and elsewhere, and the distinctly yellow soil called *pilia* to the south of the Sengar and in parts of Ghatampur. The grey loam occurs principally in the tracts of defective drainage and is much chequered by *usar*, especially in the west of the Bilhaur tahsil and in parts of Akbarpur and Cawnpore. Mention should be made also of the purely alluvial soils of the river valleys, notably the *kachhar* of the Ganges and Jumna, formed by repeated deposits of silt brought down by the rivers when in flood. All these natural soils, as well as a number of minor subdivisions, are recognized by the people, but at the same time a conventional classification is commonly in vogue, depending on the proximity or otherwise of the fields to the village site. The lands immediately surrounding the homestead, which receive the closest attention and the largest supply of manure and water, are styled *gauhan*, a term corresponding to the *goind* or *bara* of other parts: the middle zone is called *manjha*, and the outlying fields, more or less casually cultivated, are termed *barha* or *barhet*. Such a discrimination, however, is not universal, and among the Kurmis of the southern tahsils, who prefer a broad style of general cultivation, the words have little meaning. More important is the distinction between irrigated and dry, especially if a portion of the village lies within reach of the canal. Roughly speaking 10 per cent. of the cultivation consists of *gauhan*, 24 per cent. of *manjha* and the rest of *barhet*, though the proportions differ greatly in the various tahsils. In the north, and all along the Ganges, the land is more valuable and the style of cultivation far higher than in the Jumna tract, Bilhaur and Sheorajpur, the richest part of the district, having fully 15 per cent. of *gauhan* and some 30 per cent. of *manjha*.

Lakes and
jhils.

The drainage of the district is generally good, and in few places has any trouble arisen from artificial obstructions such as railway embankments and canals, while the recent rectification of the old irrigation channels has removed much of the trouble that had occurred in one or two localities. On the other hand the district contains a large number of small depressions in which the surface water collects to form shallow *jhils* and swamps, although large open stretches of water deserving the names of lakes are very rare. Such *jhils* are generally confined to the grey loam and *usar* tracts, of which the most important are to be found in the south of Bilhaur, east of the Pandu river, in the centre of Derapur, in the stiff-soiled country of Akbarpur and northern Ghatampur; in the east of Narwal and in parts of Sheorajpur and Cawnpore. The most important of these *jhils* are at Jahangirabad in Ghatampur, at Rahnas in Narwal, at Harnu, Itaili and Naula in Bilhaur, at Nariha and Rasulpur Gogaman in Akbarpur and at Macharia in Cawnpore. Others will be mentioned in the various *tahsil* articles; but there are few of any great extent, save perhaps some of the swamps which stretch in a disconnected line across the Derapur *tahsil* from Sitlmara to the Etawah boundary. The total area under water averages 44,147 acres or 2.92 per cent. of the entire district, though this includes the rivers, which comprise the bulk of the whole amount. The highest proportions are 3.62 and 3.41 in Ghatampur and Sheorajpur, respectively, followed by 3 per cent. in Bilhaur. The *jhils* are but little utilized for irrigation, save in the Bilhaur *tahsil* and in the lowlying parts of Sheorajpur, Narwal and Ghatampur, while at all times they form a somewhat precarious source of supply, owing to their liability to run dry when water is most needed.

Barren
land.

A striking feature of the district is the proportion, enormous as compared with that of many parts of the United Provinces, of waste and barren land. On an average this amounts to 404,811 acres or 26.78 per cent. of the entire area, and even after deducting land covered with water or permanently occupied by buildings, roads, railways and the like, there remains an area equivalent at least to one-fifth of the whole. In Bilhaur, Sheorajpur and Akbarpur more than 30 per cent. is described as barren; and this is due mainly to the vast stretches of *usar*, which occurs here, as throughout

the middle and lower Doab, in the form of broad and level plains, devoid of any herbage save for a few weeks after the rains, and generally white with *reh* efflorescence, a sure indication of a saturated soil. In these tracts the water-level is high and the subsoil drainage defective; the soil is either a stiff loam or clay, but nothing can be grown on it owing to the abundance of saline elements in its composition. The area of actual *usar* is about 208,500 acres, one-fourth of this being found in Billaur and one-half in the three tahsils of Sheorajpur, Akbarpur and Cawnpore. In the inferior lands towards the Jumna *usar* is seldom to be seen, but here the barren area is very extensive on account of the ravines which fringe that river and its affluents, particularly the Sengar and the Non.

For practical purposes the amount of land incapable of bearing crops is even greater than that shown above, for the so-called culturable waste includes not only much that is of a very indifferent character but also the Jungles. jungle area, in itself of considerable extent. Patches of *dhak* are to be seen all over the district, although they are now very reduced in size. The largest stretches are to be found near Harnu in the Billaur tahsil and near Rura in Akbarpur, while in the latter there is a valuable amount still remaining along the course of the Rind. The timber is useful only for fuel; but the demand is enormous, and the *zamindars* of Akbarpur, Derapur and Ghatampur derive a handsome profit from the sale of wood, the trees being cut back periodically in a regular rotation. In the lower reaches of the Rind and Pandu, and in several other parts the *babul* is to be found in abundance: and this tree, which is sometimes planted by the *zamindars*, has an even greater commercial value owing to the use of its bark as a tanning medium. But the ravines of the Sengar and Jumna bear little else except the worthless scrub of *rionj*, *chhenkar* and similar species, such as *karil*, *karaunda* and *hingot*. In all there are some 9,700 acres of bush and tree jungle, mainly in Derapur and Akbarpur; about 6,300 acres of grassy waste, the largest proportion being found in Ghatampur; and 30,000 acres of scattered trees, Derapur and Narwal together contributing more than one-third to the total. The species found are of the ordinary varieties common to the Doab, such as the *siras*, tamarind, the various

kinds of fig, the *nim* and the *shisham*, in addition to those already mentioned.

Groves.

On the whole the district presents a well-wooded appearance owing to the abundance of artificial groves, which fully makes up for the comparative scarcity of jungle. The only parts in which there is a noticeable absence of trees are the *usar* tracts and the dry uplands of the Jumna, particularly in the Bhognipur tahsil; but elsewhere the village sites are usually surrounded with fine clumps of mango and other species, and throughout the Gangetic parganas the groves form a conspicuous feature in the landscape. In Cawnpore, Sheorajpur, Narwal and the greater part of Bilhaur groves are as numerous and extensive as in the districts of Oudh to the north; but while Ghatampur is fairly well supplied in this respect, the proportion falls off rapidly in the rest of the area. In 1870 there were altogether 49,360 acres under groves, and though the exact figures for 1840 are not obtainable, it is certain that a large increase had taken place in the interval, especially in the northern tahsils. Subsequent years have witnessed a further expansion, the average for the five years ending with 1906-07 being 53,828 acres or 3·56 per cent. of the entire district, a figure which may be compared with the 4·5 per cent. in Fatehpur and 5·5 in Unao beyond the Ganges. Every *tahsil* shows a distinct extension of the grove area, and the increase is most marked in Cawnpore and the Jumna tracts. In the latter, however, the proportion is still low, only 1·47 per cent. of Bhognipur being under groves. Parts of Ghatampur are admirably wooded, the average for that tahsil being 3·78 per cent.; but in Derapur and Akbarpur it is no more than 2·22 and 2·94 per cent. respectively, as compared with 4·43 in Bilhaur, 4·5 in Sheorajpur, 4·87 in Narwal and 5·22 per cent. in the Cawnpore tahsil. In the last mentioned subdivision the extent of grove land is very remarkable, and is due partly to the large demand for fruit in the city and partly to the fact that commercial proprietors, who have greatly extended their possessions during recent years, can afford themselves the luxury of converting arable land into groves. These plantations are principally of mango trees: and the *mahua*, which is so striking a feature of the eastern districts, is mainly confined to the southern and drier parganas.

Although along the Jumna are to be seen the characteristic soils of Bundelkhand, formed apparently from Vindhyan detritus, the rest of the district exposes nothing but the ordinary Gangetic alluvium. The mineral products of Cawnpore are consequently limited to those which occur throughout the Gangetic plain. There is no stone nor are there any metallic ores, the nearest approach to the former being the conglomerate limestone known as *kankar*. Sometimes, as at Maswanpur in the Cawnpore tahsil and at Tilsahri and Kundwa in Narwal, this occurs in the block form known as *chat*, but its value as a building material is very small. More commonly it is of the usual nodular type, and this is found in abundance throughout the Gangetic tract and in the *usar* country of the centre. In the neighbourhood of the city, however, most of the accessible quarries have been exhausted by the constantly increasing demand, and this has operated in raising the price, which now ranges from Rs. 7 to Rs. 9-8-0 per hundred cubic feet, exclusive of carriage and the cost of consolidation. Lime of fair quality is obtained from *kankar* by burning, and kilns are to be seen at most of the quarries: it fetches about Rs. 22 per hundred cubic feet, but a higher price has to be paid for the superior stone lime imported from Banda. The saline efflorescences called *reh*, which make their appearance in *usar* and waterlogged ground, are of some commercial value, as they serve as a basis for the manufacture of country glass and are also used by Dhobis as a substitute for soap. From the saline earth, too, are extracted the minerals known as *khari* or sulphate of soda, *sajji* or impure carbonate of soda and *shora* or salt-petre. In former days these were extensively exploited, but under the pressure of excise regulations the factories have disappeared and the amount produced in this district is quite insignificant. The only other mineral product deserving mention is brick earth, which is found in great abundance almost everywhere. The small country bricks of the kind known as *lakhauri* are made in the neighbourhood of all the towns, and sun-dried bricks used for lining wells are turned out wherever they are required, the average cost being Rs. 3 per thousand. Bricks of the European pattern, sand-moulded on proper tables, are procurable only at Cawnpore,

where the approximate rate is Rs. 10 per thousand for the first and Rs. 8-8-0 for the second quality.

Building
materials.

Timber for building purposes is to be obtained locally; but this is of an inferior description, consisting of *nim*, tamarind and small logs of *shisham*. All the better kinds are imported to the great timber market of Cawnpore in the shape of *sal* and *asaina* from Bahramghat and Nepal, *deodar* from the Himalayas and teak from Calcutta. The cost of *sal* for roofs and doors is from Re. 1 to Re. 1-12-0 per cubic foot, and that of *asaina* from 10 to 12 annas; the rate for *deodar* logs for roofs is Rs. 2 or Rs. 3 and that of teak Rs. 3 or Rs. 3-8-0. Such timber, however, is only used in the houses of the richer classes, while for the ordinary dwellings of the villagers the common local varieties are exclusively employed. The walls are built of mud, save in the case of the better houses in the towns and those of the larger *zamindars*, and the roofs are covered with small country tiles and are supported on rough beams of such timber as may be available in the village.

Fauna.

The wild animals of the district belong to the same species as are to be found in the adjoining tracts of the Doab. The tiger has long been extinct, and it is doubtful whether it survived to the days of British rule. The leopard is still to be found in small numbers in the ravines of the Jumna, especially towards its confluence with the Sengar. Wolves are common in the wilder parts, and for years the banks of the Ganges between Jajmau and Maharajpur have been the haunt of a notorious man-eating pack, for the destruction of which a special scale of rewards was at one time introduced in this district. The extent of their depredations may be estimated from the fact that as late as 1896 and the following year no fewer than 129 persons were killed by wolves and Rs. 336 were disbursed in rewards. Wild pig are plentiful in the ravines of the Jumna and in the grassy *khadir* of the Ganges. They do a considerable amount of damage to the crops, and the Cawnpore Tent Club is still in existence although the Ganges Cup has long ceased to exist. No deer are to be found in the district, but of the antelopes the *nilgai* is to be met with in the remaining patches of *dhak* jungle, the *chinkara* or ravine deer inhabits the broken country along the Jumna, and the

black buck occurs in small but rapidly decreasing numbers throughout the district. The hyæna, the hare, the porcupine, the fox and the ubiquitous jackal practically complete the list.

The bird life of Cawnpore calls for no detailed mention, Birds. as the list of species is much the same as in other districts of the Doab. The grey partridge is fairly common, especially in the Jumna ravines and the open grass wastes, while the black partridge is occasionally found along the sandy banks of the Isan; the quail is a regular visitor, the lesser sandgrouse is met with in the southern parganas, and the florican and bustard are sometimes to be seen in the neighbourhood of Ghatampur. During the cold weather the *jhils* afford a resting place for innumerable water-fowl, including geese, duck, pochards, widgeon and teal of many varieties. Snipe, too, are constant migrants, though less numerous than in the adjoining district of Farrukhabad.

The rivers and tanks contain a plentiful supply of fish, Fish. which are highly prized as an article of food by the bulk of the people, whether Hindu or Musalman, and are in constant demand in the markets of the city. There are no fishing rights in the rivers; but the *jhils* are ordinarily leased by the *zamindars*, as also are the tanks formed by excavations along the canals, the income being credited to the Irrigation department. The fish are of the ordinary species common to the plains districts, and are taken in the usual manner by means of the rod and line, nets of various forms, size and mesh, and by the different descriptions of wicker traps and baskets. The professional fishermen are generally Kahars by caste; but during the fishing season many others, such as Musalmans, Pasis, Koris and Mallahs, betake themselves to fishing as a subsidiary means of support. At the last census the number of persons returned as fishermen was 180 in all, but this fails to represent the actual facts, since nearly all the regular fishermen have some other occupation.

There is but little cattle-breeding in the district, and the Cattle. *desi* animals bred from the ordinary cow and the so-called Brahmani bull are generally of a small and inferior type, of little use for draught purposes, though suitable enough for ploughing in the light soils which cover the bulk of the area. This is due principally to the absence of adequate grazing-grounds, or rather to the slight pastoral value of the waste

lands. In the ravine country, in the broad *usar* plains and where there are *jhils* which dry up during the hot weather but retain a growth of *tin* grass, cattle are kept in larger numbers than elsewhere, mainly by Ahirs; and these cultivators can afford to pay higher rents than their style of husbandry would otherwise warrant, owing to their command of manure and the assistance they derive from the sale of their calves and dairy produce. It is a common practice, too, for cattle to be sent from the more closely cultivated tracts to the ravines of the larger streams to graze at a fixed charge during the hot weather and rains. The Ahirs control an extensive trade in *ghi*, but they seldom, if ever, pay any attention to breeding. Efforts have been made from time to time with the object of improving the local breed by the importation of Hansi bulls and even English stock; but in either case they proved unsuited to the climate, and required more food and greater care than the ordinary cultivator could afford. All the better kinds of animals, especially those employed for draught work, are imported from the breeding tracts of these and adjacent provinces. The names of the various breeds indicate their origin, and their relative value is shown by their prices. A pair of ordinary village-bred bullocks costs from Rs. 20 to Rs. 40, and these are fit for work at wells and for light ploughing. The *Jamnait* animals from the districts of Bundelkhand, of medium size and a dull red colour, and the somewhat rough and clumsy *Bhadawari*, from the ravines of the Chambal in Agra, fetch from Rs. 30 to Rs. 35 apiece. The short-horned, heavy but enduring *Mewati* bullocks, the *Harianth*, a slow though powerful animal from Haryana, the *Janakpuri* from Bihar and the *Kenwaria*, strong and hardy beasts, of a red colour with white faces, from the banks of the Ken in Bundelkhand, all cost from Rs. 45 to Rs. 55, and are to be found in considerable numbers. The most costly of the breeds in general use are the *Paintias*, a term applied to the cattle imported from the banks of the Ghagra in Kheri and Bahraich, a long-horned and rather wild strain, which fetch from Rs. 70 to Rs. 75 per head. The remarkable diversity of breeds is due to the collection of bullocks from all parts at the great cattle fair of Makanpur, whence they are distributed to all parts of this and the neighbouring districts.

The other cattle markets, of which the chief perhaps is that of Barai Garhu in the Narwal tahsil, are of merely local importance, although there is a very considerable through trade in horned cattle from the western and southern districts to Allahabad and the southern parts of Oudh. Just before the rains, when the demand is at its height, the grand trunk road is crowded with herds of animals, and about 20,000 head pass annually through Ghatampur along the old Mughal road from Kalpi to Bindki in Fatehpur.

The first regular enumeration of cattle in the district was made at the settlement of 1870, and this gave a total of 189,899 plough-animals, 96,217 draught bullocks, 171,275 cows and young stock and 28,396 buffaloes. The average number of cattle per plough was about 2·1, leaving a very small margin, while the average plough duty was 8·25 acres, the figure ranging from 7·25 in Akbarpur and Bilhaur to as much as 10 acres in Ghatampur. The annual returns of subsequent years, prepared from the village papers, are of little value; but a fairly accurate stock census was taken in 1899 when the number of bulls and bullocks was 200,698, of male buffaloes 42,273, of cows 142,913, of cow-buffaloes 91,487 and of young stock 217,533. This showed an increase of over 100,000 horned cattle and of more than that amount in the case of buffaloes: the number of available cattle per plough had risen to 2·28, though this was still below the general average of the provinces, and the plough duty had dropped to 7·44 acres, much the same as in Fatehpur but well above the figure for Etawah and Farrukhabad. The next census was that of 1904, when a further general increase was found to have taken place, especially in the case of cows and young stock, this being but a natural result of a period of unbroken prosperity and a marked recovery from the agricultural depression of the preceding decade. There were then 219,255 bulls and bullocks, 154,423 cows, 45,977 buffaloes, 92,241 cow-buffaloes and 245,660 young stock. The average number of animals per plough, however, had remained almost unchanged, the increase being very slight: and it is needless to point out that the proportion is in some measure fictitious, since allowance should be made for draught and pack-animals, as also for those unfit for work on account of age or infirmity. Probably there is little, if

any, surplus; and this seems clear from the relatively high plough duty, at present averaging 7·35 acres, although due regard should be paid to the large proportion of light and easily-worked soil. The numbers of milch-cattle are well above the average, indicating the importance of the *ghi* industry, the city of Cawnpore providing an almost inexhaustible demand for this commodity.

Other
animals.

Horse-breeding has never flourished in this district, and at the present time it receives no encouragement in the shape of stallions maintained by Government or the district board. Out of 20,754 animals enumerated in 1904 the great majority are wretched country-bred ponies, under-sized, over-worked and under-fed, which are used for local transport and draught purposes. The same may be said of donkeys, 5,843 in all. The presence of a good system of metalled roads accounts for the large number of carts, of which 29,239 were shown in the returns: but there is also a considerable amount of pack-transport and camels are extensively used, the number of the latter being 778. There were 36,493 sheep, a figure far below the total of Fatchpur though it has increased remarkably during the past 30 years, and 281,661 goats or nearly four times the number returned in 1870. The total is higher than in any other district of the Doab, owing probably to the large amount of indifferent grazing-ground, which is well suited for goat-breeding although too poor to support horned cattle. The best breed of goats is that to be found in the Jumna tracts, where they are very similar to the well-known *Jamnepari* animals of Bundelkhand. There is a considerable trade in goats with the eastern districts, but the figures include many that are brought across the Jumna from Kalpi and the south.

Cattle
disease.

Cattle disease is at all times more or less prevalent and is no doubt disseminated from the great cattle fairs, particularly that of Makanpur, where a certain number of cases invariably occur. The returns are useless, owing to the general tendency to concealment on the part of the owners; and for the same reason, coupled with the obstructive ignorance of the people, very little can be done in the way of remedial measures, although the district board maintains two veterinary assistants for work in the district, while a veterinary hospital is soon to be erected at Cawnpore. The

commonest forms are foot-and-mouth disease, which is relatively unimportant, and rinderpest, which at times assumes an epidemic character and works havoc among the cattle: such was the case in 1898 and the following year, when the mortality was very heavy in the northern and western tahsils. Of late rinderpest has been comparatively rare, though this cannot be in any degree attributed to the spread of inoculation, which as yet has made very little headway in these parts. Anthrax, the most deadly of all bovine diseases, is probably more common than the returns would indicate: but the outbreaks are usually sporadic, and are fortunately confined to a few localities.

The climate of Cawnpore is much the same as that of the Climate. entire Doab from Agra to Allahabad. From March to the beginning of the rains it is characterised by extreme heat and dryness, intensified by strong westerly winds and occasionally interrupted by violent dust-storms. With the approach of the monsoon the wind veers to the east and, till the rains actually break, the weather is most oppressive. Similar conditions prevail during breaks in the monsoon, which may generally be expected and often last for a number of days. As usual, the close of the rains in September and October is the most unhealthy portion of the year, fever and dysentery being very prevalent. The cold weather may be said to commence at the end of October, and the temperature falls gradually till it reaches its minimum in January: frosts are not uncommon, but they are seldom of much intensity, and a cold wave like that of February 1905 is fortunately a very rare occurrence. No records of temperature are available for Cawnpore, but the monthly averages are much the same as those of Allahabad, the mean of the hottest months being about 90°F. in the shade.

Rain-gauges were established at the various tahsil Rainfall. headquarters at least as early as 1844; but the results were not very satisfactory, since the returns of a number of years give an average far below that of more recent times. They were instituted afresh after the Mutiny, and there are continuous records for Cawnpore itself from 1861 and for the other tahsils from 1864 onwards. The average for the whole District, based on the figures for a period of 44 years, is 32·47 inches, and the difference between the amounts recorded at

the several stations is very slight, though in some cases quite appreciable. The highest average is that of Bilhaur, amounting to 34·67 inches, and next come Sheorajpur with 33·94, Ghatampur with 32·93 and Cawnpore with 32·81. The others are below the general average, Akbarpur receiving 32·01, Narwal 31·5, Derapur 30·86 and Bhognipur 30·56 inches. From this it would appear that on the whole the influence of the Ganges is greater than that of the Jumna, and also that the precipitation is heavier in the eastern than in the western tracts. The same phenomena are observed in Fatehpur, where the fall is on an average about two inches more than in this district. While the total is comparatively low; the variations that occur from year to year are frequently very striking. Treating an excess or defect of more than 25 per cent. as abnormal, there have been nine occasions during the past 44 years on which the rainfall has been exceptionally heavy, and nine on which the deficiency was equally marked: and this might be otherwise stated by saying that in every period of five years one may expect both a famine and a flood. As a matter of fact the latter is a comparatively rare occurrence and the damage done is seldom extensive; it generally is limited to the Ganges valley, especially to the *kachhar* lands between Bithur and Nawabganj, where the waters of the Non are apt to be held up by those of the Ganges and to spill over the lowlands to the south. Still these Ganges floods, which in most cases occur during September, are not necessarily the result of heavy rain in this district. The maximum recorded rise, 14½ feet above low water level, took place in 1874, when the rainfall in this neighbourhood was but normal: and the same remark applies to the two preceding years. A similar occurrence was that of August 1890, when the crops in the *kachhar* were destroyed and much damage was done to houses in old Cawnpore and the Permit-ghat *munalla*, though the annual total fall in the district was little more than 33 inches. The wettest year on record was 1894, when the precipitation over the entire province was extraordinarily heavy and Cawnpore received 58·16 inches. Next come 1888 with 52·2 inches, 1867 with 51·18 and 1904 with 46·75, though this was due in large measure to a fall of 65 inches at Bilhaur. Other wet years were 1870 with 43·4, 1884, 1891, 1893 and 1898, though on each occasion the

total was only 41 inches or thereabouts. In 1891 the rainfall was not at all exceptional in most parts of the district, and along the Jumna it was actually below the average: but the astonishing amount of 76·47 inches was registered at Bilhaur, where 13·65 inches fell in the course of twenty-four hours, with the result that the Isan rose in flood and carried away the bridges on the railway and the grand trunk road. On the other hand the year of greatest defect was 1880, when the district average was but 11·09 inches, Narwal recording only 6·3 for the whole twelve months. This caused a general failure of the *kharif* and a marked contraction in the *rabi* area, and though famine was not officially recognized, there was considerable distress throughout the country. The result of a general average of 13·5 inches was more serious in 1905, as this followed on a partial destruction of the spring crops by frost and caused famine in the Jumna tract: actually the smallest amount in any tahsil was 9·15 inches in Sheorajpur, but the presence of abundant canal irrigation saved that subdivision. Next comes 1877 with 13·75 inches, and on this occasion the southern and western tahsils fared the worst, though famine was acute everywhere. In 1886 the total was 17·72 and the next year 28·41 inches, so that it by no means follows that famine necessarily results from a deficiency alone, unless that deficiency is accompanied by an unfavourable distribution of the rainfall. Other years of short fall have been 1864 with 19·14, 1867 with 16·16, 1883 with 23·25, 1902 with 22·25 and 1907 with 17·57 inches. As a rule the greater part of the fall occurs between the beginning of June and the end of September, but in most years a small amount may be expected during the cold weather.

In the matter of health Cawnpore does not differ in any Health, marked degree from the adjoining districts, at all events so far as the rural area is concerned. The position of the city is to some extent peculiar, as the place is a great commercial and industrial centre and cannot fairly be compared with the other large towns of these provinces. The best if not the sole means of showing the relation of this district to its neighbours in this respect is afforded by the vital statistics. These have been compiled regularly from 1865 or thereabouts, but the early records are of no value owing to the manifestly defective system of registration then employed. The returns of 1870,

for example, show an average death-rate of 21·18 per mille, and are obviously incomplete. In the following year an improved method, involving police supervision of the registers maintained by the village watchmen, was introduced, but the reforms did not come into full play for several years, as the rate was far below the present average till 1878, when the careful inspection that was induced by the famine appears to have had a permanent effect. For the ten years ending with 1880 the average death-rate, calculated on the returns of the 1872 census, was 31·17 per mille; but it should be observed that in the first half the figure was but 26·75, while for the last five years it averaged 37·75 per mille. Far greater accuracy was achieved in the succeeding decade, and then the death-rate worked out at the high figure of 41·79 per thousand of the recorded population, the maximum for any single year being 51·47 in 1887, when cholera wrought havoc in the district and city, whereas the lowest was 34·76 in 1889. This period seems to have been particularly unhealthy, at all events in comparison with the following 10 years from 1891 to 1900, when the average was no more than 33·9, the highest 48·39 in the abnormally wet season of 1894, when cholera was again rife and the public health bad throughout the provinces, and the lowest rate was 24·85 in the preceding year. Probably it was the case that this decade was abnormally favourable, for subsequent years have not witnessed any maintenance of the improvement, but rather the reverse; since for the six years ending with 1906 the death-rate for the whole district has averaged 47·55 per mille, the last year showing the unprecedented rate of 59·48. That again was due in large measure to a serious outbreak of cholera; but the determining factor of late has been the presence of plague, which has occasioned a very heavy mortality, especially in the city, and has run the rate up to a point hitherto unknown, as the deaths from other causes show no diminution. This, it may be hoped, is but a temporary condition in the health of the district, but even if plague be disregarded the death-rate must be considered high to a disquieting extent. The annual average for the ten years from 1891 to 1900, for which the returns are unusually favourable, was well above the provincial figure, and far higher than in the adjoining district of Etawah, though approximately the same as in Farrukhabad and lower than that

of Fatehpur, with its large area of ill-drained and lowlying land. The cause of this lies, no doubt, in the excessive mortality of Cawnpore city, which differs from the rest of the district to a very marked extent. In the city the average rate for the same period was 47·82 per mille, rising in 1894 to 58·99; and that this is always the case is proved by subsequent figures, the proportion for 1906 being 81·63, while the average for the preceding five years was 74·17, or considerably more than in any other municipality of the United Provinces. The result is very unsatisfactory, and doubtless points to required improvements in the matter of sanitation. It has been suggested that immigrant mill hands, who leave their families behind them, die in large numbers; but this is not the case. A similar phenomenon is to be observed in the matter of births, for though the rate is higher in Cawnpore than in the district, the excess of births over deaths in the latter changes into a defect in the city. For the ten years ending with 1890 the average total birth-rate was 42·33 per mille, or slightly more than the death-rate; and in the ensuing decade the corresponding figure was 37·26, that of the city alone being 40·84. In these 10 years the births exceeded the deaths in the rural area by 3·36 per cent., while in the case of the urban population deaths were more numerous than births by nearly 7 per cent. The defect was still greater in the six years from 1901 to 1906 inclusive, though the general rate had much improved, averaging 44·52 per thousand; and owing to the unprecedented mortality in Cawnpore the rate for the whole district was well below that of deaths, so that the next census will probably show a general decline of the population. The figures for recent years are given in the appendix.*

A second table shows the principal causes of death and their relative position.† The returns can be considered as approximate only, particularly in the case of fever, since the diagnosis is generally left to the village *chaukidar* and there is always a tendency to ascribe to fever any disease in which fever is a prominent symptom. On the other hand it is certain that there is a great deal of malarial fever, and it is probably safe to assert that this disease accounts for the majority of deaths. The figure is fairly constant, although

* Appendix, table III.

† Appendix, table IV.

occasionally epidemics of great intensity break out and the mortality attains alarming proportions. Such was the case in 1879 after and during the famine, in 1887 and 1890, in the wet year of 1894, in the famine of 1897 and in 1906, which in almost every district was a most unhealthy season. Despite the comparative absence of swampy and lowlying ground, rivers and canals abound; so that fever seems to be endemic, assuming an aggravated form both in abnormally wet years and when scarcity has reduced the general vitality of the people or drought has killed the frogs and fish which live on the larvæ of the mosquito. The ratio of the deaths from fever to the total mortality, however, does not depend so much on these causes as on the prevalence or otherwise of other forms of disease, the figure dropping when small-pox, cholera or plague visit the district and rising when these are absent; so that as a general rule a high relative mortality from fever in any year is an indication of the comparative healthiness of the season. From 1871 to 1880 the deaths returned under the head of fever averaged 76·69 per cent. of the total recorded number. In the next decade, when the death-rate was high, the proportion fell to 70·85; from 1891 to 1900, a period of fair general health, it was 76·32; and in the last six years, with their extraordinarily heavy death-rate, it was no more than 54·42 per cent.

Cholera.

Of the regular epidemic diseases the chief is cholera, which is never absent from the district for many months and in every year since the records were first kept has accounted for a certain, and often a very large, number of deaths. It usually appears in April or May, or else during the rains: it does not follow any particular line of country, but one day it will break out with great virulence in one village, while the next it will visit a second at the other end of the district with equal intensity. There was a bad epidemic during the famine of 1869, when 2,801 persons were carried off, and others of less significance occurred in 1873 and 1875 though every year showed a considerable mortality, and the average number of deaths from 1871 to 1880 was 570 annually, or 1·7 per cent. of the total. For some years a similar state of things continued, and with the exception of 1882 there was no very serious outbreak till 1887, when the disease ravaged the whole district and no fewer than 5,572 deaths from cholera were recorded.

It then almost died out, and the average for the ten years ending with 1890 was 1,064 deaths or 1·83 per cent. of the total. The ensuing decade showed some improvement, the deaths averaging 908 yearly or 1·76 per cent., and this figure would have been far lower but for 1894, when the worst epidemic on record occurred, the aggregate mortality being 5,836. Since that date there has been no outbreak of any magnitude except in 1906, when the disease spread from the Nepal Tarai to Allahabad and thence throughout the length and breadth of the north of India.

Though cholera shows no signs of disappearance, the case is very different with small-pox, which is now a comparatively rare disease. In former days its ravages were terrible, and even the returns of fairly recent years, when vaccination had already become more or less general, are sufficient to indicate the nature of this scourge. In 1869 no fewer than 6,327 deaths were registered, and this is probably far short of the mark. From 1871 to 1880 inclusive the annual average was 2,162, violent epidemics occurring in 1873, 1874 and 1878, the deaths in the second year totalling 7,428. During the next ten years the average dropped to 866 or 1·59 as compared with 6·38 of the entire recorded number, and even this figure would have been much lower save for a long-continued visitation in 1883 and the following season. Of late there has been no outbreak of any intensity, as will be seen in the statistical returns. The average mortality was only 77 from 1891 to 1900, and the last six years have been almost as free. This is of course due to the progress of vaccination, which attained a surprising degree of popularity in Cawnpore at a very early date. At first it was purely voluntary, and the only persons vaccinated were those who presented themselves for the purpose at the Government dispensaries. The present system of a special peripatetic vaccinating staff dates from 1865, from which year the number of operations increased with remarkable rapidity. The recurrence of severe epidemics acted as a great incentive, and by 1878 the total number of vaccinations for the year had risen to over 33,000, while the average for the ten years ending in 1880 was 26,484. It afterwards declined slightly, and the annual average for the ensuing decade was 26,085; but the small-pox epidemic of 1894 had a wonderful effect, and the

decennial average rose to 32,410. The last few years have witnessed a further advance, since from 1901 to 1906 the average was 35,029 and in 1907 nearly 40,000 persons were vaccinated. This means that since 1881 about 856,000 persons have been rendered practically immune to small-pox, so that the protected proportion of the population is very large. In the last seven years alone over 19 per cent. of the inhabitants have been vaccinated, and though many districts can show a higher proportion, the state of Cawnpore may be considered very satisfactory.

Plague.

Of the other diseases the most important at the present time is plague, which of late years has been responsible for an immense mortality. The first cases occurred in April 1900, when steps were immediately taken to segregate the patients, with the result that the city mob, instigated by a few ringleaders of better circumstances than the rest, attacked the plague huts at Juhi, and there killed and burned **six policemen** and a tahsil *chaprasi*. The malcontents subsequently held a riotous assembly on the old Parade which was eventually dispersed by the troops. No further trouble occurred, though for several days the shops remained closed. The offenders were adequately punished, several of the ringleaders being hanged, while a large force of punitive police was quartered on the city for a year. No further cases of plague were discovered till January 1902, when the disease was introduced by two or three persons from Allahabad, followed by other importations from Gorakhpur, Fatehpur and elsewhere. Isolation was successfully effected at first; but in April an outbreak occurred in cantonments, and the inhabitants declined to vacate their houses or to have them disinfected, with the result that the disease spread rapidly into the city, where the congestion of the population, located to a large extent in crowded tenements, rendered preventive measures almost impracticable. The advent of the hot weather brought relief, but in September plague broke out again with incredible virulence, while in the following month no fewer than 3,019 deaths were recorded, a figure that has never been surpassed. Since that time the city has never been free of the disease, although it usually disappears for a short time during the summer months, and the mortality from this cause has been

appalling, especially in 1903 and 1905.* · Since the latter year its ravages have been less alarming, but it cannot yet be said that its force is spent. Nor is it possible to say how far the abatement is due to preventive operations. In 1902 the sanitary staff was increased, and special attention was devoted to the general improvement of the city with excellent results, although the conditions prevailing in the most densely-populated quarters still leave much to be desired. Disinfection has never been found practicable, and has always met with the most obstinate opposition on the part of the people. The same remark applies to evacuation, a policy which could hardly be adopted in a crowded city on any extensive scale. The inhabitants have usually exhibited the greatest reluctance to leave their homes in spite of every inducement on the part of the authorities, including the provision of free huts for their accommodation. The continued ravages of the disease, however, have taught the people wisdom, and at the end of 1902 almost the whole of Sisaman, Puranipurwa, Nawabganj, Old Cawnpore and Gwaltoli, as well as parts of other *muhallas*, were evacuated, while liberal gifts of blankets and warm clothing from the Elgin Mills, Woollen Mills and Muir Mills helped to mitigate the discomforts to which the ejected residents were subjected. In the matter of inoculation the inhabitants at first displayed the most inveterate suspicion and hostility, but this was overcome by the exercise of great tact on the part of the plague officer, and at the end of 1902 a large number of persons came forward voluntarily. This change of attitude was unfortunately short-lived, for although the efficacy of inoculation was most clearly demonstrated among the 5,390 persons who submitted to the operation between September 1902 and the end of that year, it was long before it became popular and was viewed with general dislike. The destruction of rats was recommended at an early date but it was not till the spring of 1905 that it was seriously adopted as a preventive measure, a reward of one pice being then given for each rat produced, while numbers of traps were distributed gratuitously. The question is one of peculiar importance in Cawnpore, where these pests are unusually abundant, owing both to the congested state of the city and also to the presence of so many large grain stores.

* Appendix, table IV.

Infirmities.

Statistics of infirmities have been compiled at each census from 1872 onwards, but the returns are of little use, owing to defective enumeration and also to the difficulty of determining the standard to be adopted in the case of insanity, deaf-mutism and the like. The number of blind persons was 4,252 in 1872; but in 1881 it had risen to 4,970, though since that time the decrease has been rapid, the total being 3,713 in 1891 and 2,322 at the last census. The decline has doubtless been real and may be ascribed in large measure to the spread of vaccination and the consequent elimination of small-pox, one of the most fertile causes of blindness. Insanity has decreased steadily from 266 cases in 1872 to 198 in 1881, to 143 in 1891, and to 133 in 1901. The number of deaf-mutes has varied strangely. From 247 in 1872 it rose to 563 in 1881 and to 771 ten years later, while in 1901 there were but 302 persons thus afflicted. The increase in the second and third periods was considered to be merely nominal, and to have been due to concealment on previous occasions; but this only makes the subsequent decrease more difficult to explain, and the most probable cause is that in 1881 and 1891 a large number of persons who were deaf only were included in the returns. Leprosy has decreased rapidly of late. The total in 1872 was 219, but though this had risen in 1881 to 283, it fell to 237 in 1891 and to 80 at the last enumeration. These variations are a matter for speculation, and must so remain till the conditions governing the disease have been ascertained.

CHAPTER II.

AGRICULTURE AND COMMERCE.

The unfortunate experiences of the district in the matter of revenue administration during the early years of British rule were in large measure due to the absence of any record showing the extent of cultivation and the agricultural capabilities of the tract. This defect was not remedied until the first survey in 1838, and consequently it is not possible to ascertain the cultivated area in any year before that date. The survey showed that 733,263 acres were under tillage, but this figure was admittedly below the normal owing to the disorganization caused by the famine of the preceding year. At all events it appears that the recovery was rapid, for the corrected figures of 1845 give a total of 781,903 acres, which almost agrees with the 782,461 acres shown in the report of the subsequent settlement. The latter amounted to 52·3 per cent. of the recorded total area; but this does not represent the maximum cultivation of that period, since the returns prepared for the census report of 1853 make the area under the plough no less than 800,438 acres. During the next twenty years the expansion continued steadily, and at the following settlement the area under tillage, according to the returns of the survey made between 1870 and 1873, was 859,600 acres, or 56·9 per cent. of the entire district. Here again there is some uncertainty as to the exact figure, as another statement puts the total at 864,457 acres. Annual returns are extant for thirty years from 1876-77 onwards, and from these it appears that for the first decade the area remained at about the same level, the average for the decade being 841,420 acres; and this would have been much higher but for the drop to 829,130 acres in the famine year of 1877-78, and for the extraordinary decrease to 741,034 acres in 1880-81 caused by the failure of the rains. The highest figure reached in any one year was 878,970 acres in 1879-80, and this has never been surpassed. Between 1886-87 and 1895-96 the district experienced a considerable amount of deterioration in the less favoured localities, a wet cycle of years resulting in extensive

saturation throughout the lowlying tracts, and this, accompanied by an excessive demand in many places, led to the abandonment of large areas of inferior land. The average for the ten years was but 796,688 acres, the lowest point being reached in the last year when no more than 757,056 acres were cultivated. The famine year of 1896-97 marked the climax, the area under tillage being then but 737,218 acres; and from that date matters steadily improved, the progress becoming extremely rapid with the commencement of the new century. Returns for a single year, the date varying in the different tahsils, are not obtainable owing to the disturbance of the ordinary land records work by settlement operations, and it is therefore best to treat the eleven years ending in 1906-07 as a decade. The average area under cultivation was 812,547 acres; but, as the improvement was mainly confined to the second half of the period, this figure does not afford an adequate idea of the present state of the district. In the last five years the average was 840,086 acres, or 55·58 per cent. of the entire area; and even this would have been much higher save for the drop in 1905-06 due to adverse seasonal conditions, when the extent of actual tillage was no more than 818,944 acres. The amount in the last year, 1906-07, was 846,829 acres, and this may fairly be regarded as normal. The standard of development varies in the different tahsils, but its relative height affords no indication of the comparative value of the several tracts but rather the reverse. Ghatampur and Bhognipur, the poorest and most precarious subdivisions, show averages of 62·18 and 58·98 per cent. respectively; and next follow Derapur with 58·76 and Narwal with 55·16 per cent. On the other hand the proportion of cultivated land is only 48·91 in Bilhaur and 53·28 per cent. in Sheorapur, which admittedly form the richest and most highly tilled portions of the district. It is 52·87 in Akbarpur and 52·07 per cent. in the Cawnpore tahsil, which possesses far superior advantages to those enjoyed by the parganas along the Jumna.

**Double-
cropping.**

Although there has been an apparent decline in the actual area under the plough, this does not necessarily involve a reduction of cultivation, and such proves to be the case in Cawnpore. To arrive at a true estimate of the agricultural development of the district, the reclamation of more or less

unprofitable waste is of little moment as compared with an expansion of the gross cropped area. At the settlement of 1840 no mention was made of double-cropping, but thirty years later the area bearing two crops in the year was 44,315 acres, bringing up the total to 903,915 acres. The subsequent increase has been very striking. For the ten years ending with 1885-86 the total average was 920,827, and that of the double-cropped area 79,707 acres; for the next decade the figures were 920,775 and 124,086 acres, showing that the real contraction of cultivation was extremely small, and that the concentration of effort on the better lands was probably more beneficial than otherwise; while for the last ten years the average cropped area was 959,630 acres, that of the second half, from 1901-02 to 1906-07, being no less than 978,973 acres. This means that in place of a decrease in cultivation to the extent of some 3 per cent. during the currency of the last settlement, as would at first sight appear, there has been an extension of some 75,000 acres in the area cropped: and this fact is of immense importance in estimating the economic condition of the district. The area bearing a double crop from 1896-97 to 1900-01 averaged 173,280 acres, while in the last five years it was 139,507 acres, the former figure being probably to some extent abnormal and due to unusual efforts made to counteract the effect of unfavourable seasons. The present figure represents 16·66 per cent. of the net area tilled, and this average is much the same as those of the Cawnpore, Derapur and Akbarpur tahsils. In Bhognipur and Ghatampur it is little more than 11 per cent. and in Narwal it is but 7·93; but on the other hand the proportion rises to 25·43 in Bilhaur, while in Sheorajpur no less than 29·88 per cent. of the area tilled bears more than one crop in the year.

That a further extension of tillage is possible has been proved by experience; but it is not so certain that much of the available land would repay cultivation under existing conditions. It may be assumed that the old fallows were abandoned because they yielded no profit; and consequently it is fairly safe to assert that land is of little value that is not considered worth the expense and labour involved in its reclamation in the present state of the market, when prices are at a level unknown in former days. Such land is, as a

Culturable
waste.

rule, poor and sandy or broken by ravines, without means of irrigation and generally at a distance from the village site. The crops are dependent on the rainfall and are consequently precarious; and the scanty outturn realized in a good year fails to compensate for the total loss involved by a bad season. No doubt an extension of the canal system would result in a corresponding increase in the arable area, especially in certain parts where the soil is not wholly worthless, as on the Ganges bank in the Narwal tahsil; but already the supply of water is not equal to the demand, and it is very doubtful whether any addition can be made to the amount taken out of the Ganges. The total area classed as culturable is 266,491 acres, or 17·63 per cent. of the entire district. From this, however, certain deductions should be made, as in the case of groves, 53,828 acres, and new fallow, 25,695 acres, which is left untilled under the ordinary system of rotation. The balance is still very large, comprising 45,933 acres of culturable waste and 141,035 acres of old fallow. The former is often covered with jungle or very closely akin to *usar* and other barren land; but the latter has probably in most cases been cultivated at some period or other, although the classification is always somewhat vague and it is difficult to draw the line between culturable and unculturable. The two together comprise 12·37 per cent. of the total area. The highest proportion is 14·97 in Ghatampur, followed by 14·2 in Narwal and 13·73 per cent. in Derapur. In the other tahsils the figure is below the average, Bilhaur having 12·34, Akbarpur 12·1, Cawnpore 11·09, Bhognipur 10·64 and Sheorajpur 9·9 per cent. of their areas coming under this description.

Agriculture.

The methods of husbandry and the implements in general use in this district present no peculiar features, and very few changes have occurred during the past century. Thirty years ago a suggestion was made that the introduction of canals had brought about a decrease in the number of cattle, and consequently in the amount of manure given to the fields; but this decrease is at least questionable, and in any case it would only mean a reduction in the fuel supply. On the other hand it is almost certain that canals have had an effect in improving the quality of the crops grown, though the improvement is less noticeable than might have been expected, and in particular

there has been no great increase in the amount of wheat grown for export. Another possible effect of canals is the development of a broader style of cultivation, involving the devotion of more attention to all the lands of a village in preference to a close concentration of effort on the fields immediately adjoining the homestead. The latter practice is far more apparent in the northern and eastern tahsils than elsewhere, for at all times the comparative absence of a *gauhan* zone in the villages of Bhognipur and Ghatampur has been very remarkable, although the difference in practice may be due rather to the personal characteristics of the cultivators than to any other cause. In the matter of implements the only change deserving of record has been the general substitution of the modern iron roller mill for the old *kolhu*, which has now practically disappeared. Little local benefit seems to have been derived from the presence of a model farm at Cawnpore, although the establishment of seed depôts for the distribution of selected seed-grain has been attended with fairly satisfactory results.

The cultivator divides the agricultural year into the usual three seasons, and calls the harvests by the three usual names of *kharif*, *rabi* and *zaid*, or intermediate. The last is usually unimportant. The area was not shown separately till 1879-80, when it was 1,135 acres, the average for the following six years being 2,082. It has since increased, the average from 1886-87 to 1895-96 being 4,326 acres, while in the next five years it was 5,044, and for the five years ending with 1906-07 the average had risen to 5,638 acres although this was in large measure due to the abnormal condition of affairs in 1905-06, when great efforts were made to remedy the loss caused by the failure of the *rabi* in certain parts. In normal years nearly half the area is sown with melons, which are grown in the sandy beds of rivers in all tahsils but particularly in Cawnpore and along the Ganges. The bulk of the remainder is made up by vegetables: a little *chena* is grown, but the amount is insignificant save under special circumstances, when it is put down in irrigated land to replace a lost *rabi* crop. Of the two main harvests the area varies according to the nature of the season. At the first survey, which followed close on the famine of 1837, the areas were

343,945 acres of *kharif* and 299,755 of *rabi*, but the returns are of little value owing to the peculiar conditions then prevailing. At the next settlement the *kharif* area was 412,274 and that of the *rabi* 485,471 acres, from which it would appear that the relative position of the harvests had materially altered in the interval. The returns of subsequent years have shown that while the *rabi* area remains more or less constant, marked fluctuations occurring only in exceptional seasons, the *kharif* is far more sensitive to climatic conditions. During the ten years ending in 1885-86 the average of the former was 456,658 and of the latter 463,106 acres; the *rabi* would have been much larger but for the failure or the premature cessation of the rains in 1877 and 1880, when the area dropped to 411,900 and 370,900 acres, respectively. In the ensuing decade the *rabi* average was 472,822, and the variations were seldom great; while that of the *kharif* was 443,626 acres, the lowest being 350,807 in 1888-89, as contrasted with 477,477 two years earlier. From 1896-97 to 1900-01 the spring average was 449,162 and the autumn 486,081, the latter showing the more rapid recovery with improved seasons; and in the five years ending with 1906-07 the *kharif* still maintained its lead, averaging 490,412 acres as compared with 478,068 acres sown for the *rabi*, although on at least one occasion the positions were reversed. The *rabi* would have shown a much higher figure but for 1905-06, when the total dropped to 418,618 acres, an occurrence which proved that, in spite of the enhanced security due to the canals, adverse seasonal conditions cannot fail to exert an immense influence on the district, and that an early termination of the rains must inevitably bring about a general contraction of the area under spring crops. The effect varies in different parts of the district. The Ganges tract is fairly safe against any general loss of the *rabi*; but along the Jumna, although the extension of canals has made a vast difference, there are many villages which depend wholly on the rainfall, and further a restriction of the spring area makes itself felt for several seasons owing to the inevitable spread of *kans* grass and similar pests. In Akbarpur, Bhognipur and Ghatampur the *rabi* is more extensive than the *kharif*, though these tahsils show the greatest fluctuations. An excess on the part of the former occurs also

in Cawnpore, while Bilhaur alone, with its wide stretches of rice land, shows any marked predominance on the part of the autumn harvest.

With a few and unimportant exceptions the produce of *Rabi* the *rabi* harvest consists of wheat, barley and gram, sown ^{crops.} either alone or, as is more generally the case, in combination. The area under pure wheat averages 63,617 or 13·31 per cent. of the land cultivated for spring crops, the proportion being generally higher in the north than elsewhere and ranging from 28·05 per cent. in Sheorajpur to 1·17 per cent. in Ghatampur. Barley is seldom to be found by itself; and the same may be said of gram, which when sown alone averages 37,828 acres or 7·91 per cent., and more than two-thirds of this area lies in the Ghatampur and Bhognipur tahsils, where the crop is of no great value and the outturn poor. On the other hand barley in combination with gram averages 222,451 acres or no less than 46·53 per cent. of the entire *rabi*, and wheat mixed with gram or barley constitutes 26·3 per cent., covering 125,176 acres. Thus these three crops aggregate 93·37 per cent. of the entire area, irrespective of the mixture known as *gujai*, where the three are sown together. Of the remaining food crops the chief are peas, which have attained some measure of popularity in late years, especially in the southern and eastern tracts, and now average 12,700 acres or nearly six times the amount recorded thirty years ago. Potatoes cover 1,852 acres, of which 1,600 are to be found in Bilhaur and Sheorajpur: they have steadily increased, the area extending almost every year, whereas in 1876 the crop occupied little more than 500 acres. Vegetables and garden crops with some 1,900 acres make up the balance: they are grown everywhere, the largest area being in the Cawnpore tahsil. Among the non-food *rabi* crops the most important is poppy, although Cawnpore is far from being a great opium-producing district. The area has fluctuated to a remarkable extent, that of the ten years ending in 1886-87 being 7,506 and of the next two decades 3,410 and 7,393 acres: the average for the last five years is 6,350 acres or 1·33 per cent. of the *rabi* harvest, and nearly half of this is to be found in the Bilhaur tahsil. The cultivation of poppy was first introduced into the district

in 1830-31 under the agency of the collector, and engagements were taken for some 510 acres; but owing to ignorance and gross adulteration the produce was worthless, and the experiment was abandoned for two years. In 1833 a trained staff was sent to the district, godowns were erected at Cawnpore, Billhaur and Akbarpur, and though the season was most unfavourable, the opium produced was recognized to be of exceptional quality. Despite opposition on the part of the *zamindars* the undertaking prospered, and in 1835-36 a sub-deputy opium agent was appointed in the person of Mr. P. Maxwell, who held charge for many years. In 1840 an improvement was effected by the introduction of imported seed, which gave a greatly enhanced outturn. The average area under opium from 1833-34 to 1842-43 was 1,489 acres annually and the produce 4·7 *scrs* per acre, though in the second half of the period it averaged as much as 6·16 *scrs*. After the Mutiny the business was reorganized and godowns were for many years maintained at Ankin and Rura, though these have lately been abolished. The system of advances, originally very like that of indigo, was gradually altered, and now advances are always made to the individual cultivator provided he attends at the settlement centres, the latter being the most conveniently situated road or canal bungalow in each pargana. Weighments are no longer made at Cawnpore, the old godown near Juhi having been sold to the Muir Mills, but are usually conducted at Ankin, Rura, Panki, Bidhnu and Maharajpur. The temporary decline in cultivation was due to the depreciation of silver and the consequent rise in the price of food-grains; and the recovery is due to the appreciation of the advances, which provide the cultivator with cash when he needs money for the purchase of seed, although poppy no longer enjoys its old reputation as the most profitable of all crops. The outturn varies with the nature of the season. The average in 1856 was 6·8 *scrs* per acre, in 1866 it had dropped to 4·9, though ten years later it had risen to 10·57, in 1886 it was 5 *scrs* and in 1896 it was 5·7 *scrs* per acre. Tobacco was once a somewhat favourite crop but has declined of late, the commonly attributed reason being that the canals, by raising the water-level, have destroyed the saline character of the wells, brackish water being generally regarded as

essential for tobacco lands. The area in 1840 was 1,038, and at the next settlement 1,257 acres. The average remained high till 1886-87, that of the preceding ten years being 916 acres and in the two ensuing decades 760 and 556 acres, the largest area being in the Narwal tahsil. There are some 570 acres under oilseeds, principally linseed and mustard, but the crops are of little importance save in Ghatampur and Bhognipur. Further details will be found in the various tahsil articles, and the figures for the principal staples in each tahsil during the last five years are given in the appendix.*

The *kharif* crop statement is more diversified, and the local distribution considerably more varied. Generally speaking, the bulk of the harvest consists in the large millets and cotton sown in combination with the pulse known as *arhar*, a growing amount of maize and a small area of rice, while a noticeable feature is the unimportant position held by sugarcane. In the foremost place come *juar* and *arhar*, averaging 206,930 acres or 42·2 per cent. of the total *kharif* area. The proportion ranges from 26·58 in Bilhaur to 55·84 per cent. in the Cawnpore tahsil, but everywhere the acreage is exceeded by no other crop. In the poorer soils *bajra* takes the place of *juar*, and this in combination with *arhar* averages 44,718 acres, or 9·12 per cent. of the *kharif*. The figure rises to 21·19 per cent. in Bhognipur and, with the exception of Derapur and Ghatampur, all other tahsils show a very low proportion, Sheorajpur coming last with only 3·54 per cent., this in itself being a sure indication of the superiority of that tahsil. Cotton has remained almost stationary for a period of more than sixty years. In 1840 it covered 101,111 acres, and though its cultivation received a great stimulus during the American war, the improvement was but temporary, and by 1870 the area had relapsed to 101,965 acres. For the ten years ending in 1885-86 the average was 99,337 and in the following decade 91,970 acres, while in the last ten years it has been 93,142 acres. Recently there has been some expansion, for in 1906-07 the total rose to 108,052, which, with the figures of the four preceding years, gave an average of 97,778 acres, or 19·94 per cent. of the *kharif*. The highest proportions are to be found in the Jumna tahsils and the lowest in Cawnpore and Sheorajpur. Rice varies but little although its cultivation has enormously increased since 1840 and even since 1870, when 27,735 acres

* Appendix, table VI.

were under this crop, the present average being 43,304 or 8·83 per cent. of the total. Nearly half this amount is to be found in the Bilhaur and Sheorajpur parganas, and apart from these the only extensive areas of rice land are in the south of Akbarpur and the continuation of this tract in the north of Ghataampur. More than half the rice is of the early variety, sown broadcast, the more valuable transplanted kind being almost wholly confined to the swampy lands of Bilhaur and the adjoining thasil. A remarkable and welcome feature in the crop statement is the growing popularity of maize: remarkable because the area in 1840 was but 654 acres, rising to 24,085 at the next settlement; and welcome because the crop reaches maturity at an early date, and therefore is less susceptible to failure in the event of a premature cessation of the rains. The average from 1876-77 to 1885-86 was 32,890 acres; for the next ten years 36,063, and for the ensuing period ending with 1906-07 no less than 55,462 acres, the present average being equivalent to 11·28 per cent. of the whole *kharif* area. In the rich tahsils of Sheorajpur and Bilhaur the proportion reaches the astonishing figures of 23·76 and 22·77 acres, and in Derapur, too, the figure is well above the average. On the other hand it is unfortunately very low in the two tahsils along the Jumna, where the extension of maize would undoubtedly prove of material benefit. Sugarcane on the other hand has not prospered. The area in 1840 was 14,038 acres, and this was well below the normal of that period: in 1870 it stood at 14,682, but has since declined, the average for the ten years ending with 1885-86 being 9,518, for the next decade 1,097 and for the last ten years 9,795 acres. Latterly there has been some expansion, the total reaching 13,494 in 1906-07, and the average of that and the four preceding years being 10,858 acres or 2·21 per cent. of the *kharif*. It is grown in every pargana, but Bilhaur and Sheorajpur account for nearly half the total production. The remaining *kharif* crops are unimportant, though indigo calls for separate mention on account of the prominent part it once played in the agriculture of the district. For the rest *san* hemp covers on an average 3,820 acres, or more than double the amount grown in 1870, and is found throughout the district; garden crops aggregate 6,200 acres, and are extensively raised in Cawnpore and the

other Ganges parganas, the recent spread of sweet potatoes in Narwal being a noticeable feature; oilseeds, principally *til*, make up 1,095 acres, of which more than half lie in Ghatampur and Akbarpur; the autumn pulses, *urd*, *mung* and *moth*, are here confined to less than 800 acres; and an insignificant area is under the smaller millets. Among the garden crops mention should be made of *pan*, which is a very valuable product and is grown throughout the district, particularly in Narwal, in the peculiar covered vineries which form so prominent a feature in the rural landscape. The *pan* gardens of Barai Garhu are especially celebrated, and that village enjoys an almost provincial reputation for its produce and market.

The history of indigo is interesting, for almost immediately after the cession its cultivation was taken up by several European firms. One at least dates from before the cession, for the well known General Martin of Lucknow fame established a factory at Najafgarh, renting that estate from the sisters of Najaf Khan. He had 25 vats at Najafgarh and 330 in outlying villages; and the business after his death was carried on by his nephew, who sold it to Messrs. Fortier and Dubois. His example was followed by Mr. Adam Maxwell at Maharajpur, who had 187 vats in fourteen villages, by Messrs. Burnett and Co., and several others, European and native. Cultivation spread rapidly, but by degrees sound business principles gave way to rash speculation and in 1830 the Calcutta houses failed, causing a general crash. Najafgarh was resumed by Government, and after seven years of direct management was leased to Mr. Vincent, who subsequently sold it to Messrs. Greenway, from whom it passed to Messrs. Menzies and then to Khagol Singh. Maharajpur similarly passed through several hands and was ultimately broken up. The failure of the big firms caused widespread loss throughout the district, the cultivators being deprived of the cash advances on which they had largely depended; and the area under indigo dropped to a low figure, the total in 1840 being but 14,598 acres. For many years the industry remained in a depressed state and the crop was raised principally for the supply of seed, which was in strong demand throughout Bihar. A recovery set in, however, about 1865,

and by the time of the survey the area had risen to 24,083 acres. The boom continued for some time, old factories were reopened, many new ones constructed especially in Sheorajpur, and even the tenants spent money in building pairs of miniature vats on the borders of their fields. From 1876 to 1885 the average area under indigo was 44,784 acres, the highest point being reached in 1884, when no less than 60,442 acres were cultivated. Then came a decline, and in the next ten years the average dropped to 28,634 acres, while during the last decade it was only 17,335. Even this does not represent the existing condition of affairs. The average for the years ending in 1906-07 was 7,985 acres or 1.63 per cent. of the *khairif*; but in the last year the total had sunk to 4,273 acres, and the complete disappearance of indigo seems almost inevitable, the reason being the fall in prices caused by the introduction of the synthetic dye. Every tahsil still produces a little indigo but except Bilhaur none can approach the amount grown in Sheorajpur, where the capital sunk in the industry has been very large. It is worthy of note that in Narwal the cultivation of indigo is most unknown for the *zamindars*, bearing in mind the disasters experienced by their grandfathers, seem steadily to have kept aloof from the revival.

Agricultural
station.

In connection with agriculture mention should be made of the experimental farm started in 1881 by Government at Gutaiya, close to Nawabganj. It was placed under the management of the Agricultural department, and round this farm as a nucleus an agricultural station has gradually been organized, now serving as the centre of one of the circles into which the province has been divided for the operations of the department. The station is in charge of a deputy director, who controls a staff drawn from the subordinate agricultural service. For research purposes the station is provided with an experimental farm of about 36 acres, a workshop and a sub-station for the study of *usar*: a plot was first acquired in the village of Anraman and was sold after successful reclamation, and a second was then taken up at Juhī. A large portion of the experimental farm is devoted to experiments of a permanent nature or of long duration, designed to throw light on the fundamental conditions of agriculture in the Gangetic

alluvium; the remainder is occupied by experiments of local and temporary interest, such as the trial of new crops and the comparison of different varieties. The operations at the sub-station are directed towards the elucidation of profitable methods of utilizing the large areas of barren land which are a feature of the central portions of the province. The work shop is used for designing and constructing improved implements and apparatus for experimental purposes. The functions other than experimental performed by the deputy director and his staff, comprising the demonstration of results together with advice or assistance to individuals, are carried on from the agricultural station as a centre. Adjoining the station are the agricultural college and research laboratories, in charge of a principal, the economic botanist and the agricultural chemist, all officers of the Indian agricultural service, assisted by a staff of the subordinate service. A permanent building for the college and laboratories is now in course of erection, while in the meantime the institutions are housed in temporary premises. An agricultural school was opened as early as 1893 and some 25 *qanungo* candidates were admitted yearly, instruction being also afforded without fee to students desirous of studying the subject with a view to taking up farming or estate management, or to qualifying as teachers. The course lasted for two years, and comprised elementary scientific instruction in agricultural chemistry, physics and botany as well as theoretical and practical teaching in agriculture, much importance being attached to the students' own work and observation in the field. The new college admits from 50 to 55 pupils annually, the majority being destined for employment as supervisor *qanungos* in the Land Records department, while the remainder enter the subordinate agricultural service or find employment as estate agents. The college course lasts three years, and all students are required to reside in the college hostels.

Under existing conditions the district is on the whole admirably provided with means of irrigation, and its comparative security at the present time offers a great contrast to the state of affairs prevailing in the past. The natural sources of supply are extremely limited, and over a large portion of the area the construction of wells is rendered almost

Irrigation.

impossible, or at any rate expensive in a prohibitive degree, by the great depth of the water level. Of late years an incalculable change has been effected by the development of the canal system, which has almost revolutionised the agricultural aspect of the district, and the area now considered as precarious by reason of the lack of water for the fields has been reduced to small proportions. This consists for the most part of the high and broken land adjoining the rivers, particularly the Jumna, Sengar, Ganges and the southern Non, and also of considerable tracts in Bhognipur and Ghatampur which are as yet beyond the reach of the canal or else receive but a very small supply of water owing to their situation at the ends of canal distributaries. At the last settlement the total number of villages classified as precarious on account of their deficient supply of water or else for the poverty of their soil was 383, and of these many came under this category for the second reason rather than the first. Those along the Jumna comprised 108, along the Sengar 48, along the Ganges 46 and along the Non 33 villages in Ghatampur. These make up two-thirds of the whole number, and among the rest are several on the banks of the Isan in Billaur and of the Rind in various parts of its course. Such lands must inevitably suffer in years of drought, for the nature of the subsoil and the depth to spring level renders the construction of wells almost impossible, and their geographical position puts them beyond the reach of canals. Apart from these, the only large areas of unirrigated land are in Bhognipur, especially in the tract between the railway and the Sengar, where the canal distributaries terminate, and the southern parts of Ghatampur on either side of the Non, these two tahsils having 89 villages thus situated. The improvement that has been achieved, however, is immense, though any exact estimate is impossible owing to the fact that when on various occasions it was necessary for assessment purposes to differentiate wet and dry land, the former was held to include all fields which lay within reach of water, or which had been irrigated during recent years, rather than the precise area actually watered in any given season. At the settlement of 1840 the assumed irrigated area was 50·7 per cent. of the net cultivation; but this was grossly exaggerated, since for example

even land that was unwatered but which might be irrigated if a well were constructed on it was classified as irrigable. In 1870 the proportion was 40·4 per cent., and though this was supposed to include only such land as had been irrigated within the three preceding years a good deal more was, in practice, added to the list. Still, if the estimate be taken as fair, the vast improvement effected during the next thirty years is at once obvious, for at the last settlement no less than 61·5 per cent. of the cultivated area was shown as irrigable, while on this occasion every care was taken to avoid undue exaggeration. This increase is due mainly to the introduction of canals into Bhognipur and to the extension of the Ghatampur and Fatehpur branches. In old days the country between the Sengar and Jumna depended solely on precarious tanks and a few wells in favoured spots, whereas now the canal carries water into all its best sections, entirely transforming the face of the country.

Owing to the wide fluctuations in the nature of the seasons, and the amount and distribution of the rainfall, the method adopted at settlement affords a better indication of the proportion of land irrigated than do the figures of a single year; but probably a nearer approach to an accurate estimate of the capacities of the district in this respect is to be obtained from an average of the actual areas irrigated during a fairly prolonged period. Unfortunately no figures are available prior to 1884-85, though even so we can ascertain the average for more than two decades. For that and the following year the mean area watered was 230,422 acres, or 27 per cent. of the area under tillage. During the ten years ending with 1895-96 the average was 222,030 acres, or 27·8 per cent. of the cultivation. The latter had declined to a marked extent; but there had been a relative increase in irrigation, which would doubtless have been much higher but for the abnormal rainfall of the period, since in the phenomenally wet season of 1894-95 the area irrigated dropped to 73,064 acres or only 9·1 per cent. of the land under the plough. From 1896-97 to 1906-07 inclusive, one year being omitted on account of settlement operations which withdrew the land records staff from their ordinary work, the average was no less than 300,062 acres or 36·9 per cent. of the area cultivated, the increase being

Irrigated
area.

wholly attributable to the enhanced supply obtainable from the canals. In the first year drought accounted for a quite unusual demand for canal water, and the proportion of irrigated to cultivated land rose to 46·4 per cent.; but in the last five years the conditions were generally normal, save for a partial scarcity in 1905-06 when all previous records were surpassed, the area irrigated being as much as 348,697 acres. This probably indicates the ordinary maximum requirements of the district, although in times of general stress more could no doubt be achieved both by a heavier demand on the canals and by the multiplication of wells in the northern and eastern tracts. In the last five years the average was 305,129 acres, or 36·32 per cent. of the net cultivation. Most of this takes place in fields sown with *rabi* crops; but there is a good deal of *kharij* irrigation, amounting to about one-fourth of the gross amount, while about one-eighth is irrigated *dofasli* land. The proportion of the area irrigated to the total area under tillage varies in the different tahsils, but is naturally highest in the Gangetic tract. It averages as much as 50·77 per cent. in Sheorajpur, and next come Akbarpur with 45·93, Derapur with 42·12 (these tahsils having a very complete system of canals), Bilhaur with 41·77 and Cawnpore with 37·9 per cent. Elsewhere the ratio is below the general average, Narwal having 34·46, Bhognipur 27·15 and Ghatampur but 21·28 per cent. of its cultivated area irrigated; but though these figures may appear small it may be observed that the old irrigable area of Ghatampur is now actually irrigated, while in Bhognipur nearly four items the amount considered to be within reach of water in 1870 regularly obtains irrigation.

Sources of
supply.

The various canals supply on an average 65·77 per cent. of the total irrigation, wells 29·27 and other sources, including tanks, *jhils* and streams, 4·96 per cent. The last alone can be considered precarious, so that irrigation in this district possesses the inestimable advantage of being practically secure. The proportion of well irrigation varies immensely in the different tahsils. In Bhognipur wells supply but 42 per cent., while in Cawnpore and Narwal they irrigate 53·14 and 58·25 per cent. respectively of the area watered. The figure is high in Derapur and Bilhaur where 31·42 and 40·32 per cent. of

the irrigation is obtained from wells, while in Akbarpur it is 27·7, in Sheorajpur 19·51 and in Ghatampur 11·93 per cent. The tracts chiefly dependent on canals are Bhognipur, in which 97·44 of the irrigation is thus derived, Ghatampur and Sheorajpur; and those with the smallest supply of canal water are Narwal with 35·95 and Cawnpore with 43·05 per cent. It is but natural that the extension of canals should have to some extent supplanted irrigation from wells; and it is really remarkable that there has been no decline of late in the area watered by wells but rather an increase, the average for the last ten years being 90,339 and that of the preceding decade 74,693 acres.

The history of canal irrigation in this district dates from the commencement of the Ganges canal in 1812. The great project took various forms from time to time, the chief issue being the practicability of constructing a navigation channel from end to end of the Doab to terminate at Allahabad. Many alterations were made in the original scheme, but by degrees it became evident that the through channel to Allahabad was a remote eventuality and that the main object to be achieved was the construction of an irrigation canal, with subsidiary provision for navigation, leading from Hardwar to Nanau in the Aligarh district, where it bifurcated to form the Cawnpore and Etawah terminals, the former discharging into the Ganges at the city of Cawnpore and the latter emptying itself into the Jumna either in this district or in Fatehpur. The Cawnpore branch, designed to reach the country lying to the north of the Rind and Pandu rivers, was commenced in 1849-50, the last 65 miles, including the portion within this district, being entrusted to Lieut. C. W. Hutchinson, who in 1852 made over charge to Lieut. Hodgson. The canal was opened in 1854, but very little water seems to have reached the lower sections till 1861, the first year in which the undertaking showed a profit. From that time forward the demand for water exceeded the supply, and in 1866 a proposal was made to obtain a reinforcement of the volume by tapping the Ganges at a convenient spot below Hardwar, and thence to conduct a new main line of canal down the Doab, the old idea being revived of a navigation channel to Allahabad. In 1869 it was decided

that the intake would be most suitably located at Narora in the Bulandshahr district, and an extensive survey was undertaken. The project contemplated a main canal traversing the country between the Pandu and Rind in this district, together with a supply channel for the Cawnpore and Etawah branches, as well as a Bhognipur branch for the benefit of the dry tracts along the Jumna, and also a Jhinjhak branch from the new main canal to the existing Etawah branch, with the object of compensating the latter for the loss of water involved by the Bhognipur canal and the Ghatampur extension. The work of construction was begun in 1872, but was confined to the upper reaches and headworks. The scheme had provided food for much discussion and several impracticable features came to light, with the result that in 1877 far-reaching modifications of the original plan were introduced. The idea of a main canal was abandoned and its place taken by the Bewar branch, which terminates in the Isan. The supply channel for the Cawnpore and Etawah branches was converted into the main canal as far as Jera on the latter, and that place was chosen for the headworks of the Bhognipur branch, which had hitherto been fixed some thirty miles lower down. At the same time the Cawnpore and Ghatampur extensions were shelved for the present, the project thus modified being sanctioned in 1882. The undertaking, while not severing the connection between the Ganges canal and its two main branches, which still receive a considerable proportion of their supply from the upper channel, nevertheless had the result of practically converting the Cawnpore and Etawah branches into integral parts of the Lower Ganges canal system. In the case of the former it involved the transfer of 140 out of a total length of 163 miles; but the most important result, so far as actual irrigation is concerned, was that a continuous flow of water was secured in both branches, whereas formerly it had only been possible to maintain the service in alternate weeks. The increase in the volume necessitated many improvements in the canal, though the general plan was wholly satisfactory; and between 1880 and 1891 a number of defects were rectified in the Cawnpore terminal, the bridges being raised and additional locks provided for navigation purposes, while of more importance were the realignment of those distributaries

which obstructed drainage or did not effectually command the country through which they passed, and the construction of several new lines. Progress was delayed to a serious extent by the destruction in 1885 of the great aqueduct over the Kali Nadi at Nadrai, which left this district entirely dependent as before on the Upper Ganges canal for the space of two years. During this same period and in subsequent years much has been accomplished in the matter of extending canal irrigation in other parts of the district, but it will be more convenient to deal with the various branches in turn than to attempt a consecutive chronological record.

The Cawnpore branch of the Lower Ganges canal first touches the northern borders of the Bilhaur tahsil in mile 95, and thence flows in a south-easterly direction through the Bilhaur, Sheorajpur and Cawnpore tahsils, eventually tailing into the Ganges in the Cawnpore cantonment after a course of 43 miles through this district. Being originally constructed as a navigable channel the outfall was provided with an elaborate series of locks and falls to admit of the passage of boats to and from the river: there are three double locks with drops of 9, 18½ and 17 feet, the last being the tail-fall into the Ganges. These works are still maintained but are practically useless, for through communication has been rendered impossible. Between 1899 and 1902 the wharf basin in mile 136 was levelled up and the canal itself was covered over for a length of 1,800 feet, the valuable area thus rendered available being acquired by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway for sidings. About the same time a new dock was constructed at Juhi, and wharves were provided in the reach between Juhi bridge and the East Indian Railway crossing; while two needle-dams were put in for regulating the depth of water in the channel in times of low supply, one being at the Collectorganj bridge and the other just above the railway crossing. A hundred feet below the first of the three outlet falls are two flour mills, that on the right being of the usual native pattern, while in that on the left is a turbine installation. The canal and its distributaries command almost the whole of the Bilhaur and Sheorajpur tahsils and portions of Cawnpore and Narwal, and the average area irrigated in the five years ending with 1906-07 was 29,179 acres in the *kharif* and 60,380 in the *rabi* harvest. Of the

distributaries on the left bank the first and most important is the Sheorajpur, which takes out in mile 97 and runs for some 30 miles to Bithur on the Ganges. It gives off the Nadiha, Dubiana and other branches, the total length of the system being $91\frac{1}{2}$ miles irrigating 24,826 acres. The Taktauli distributary leaves the canal at mile 104 and waters an area of 10,905 acres in the Sheorajpur tahsil, the length of irrigating channels being $37\frac{1}{4}$ miles. The Kalyanpur distributary from mile 120 supplies part of Sheorajpur and Cawnpore, and is $19\frac{1}{2}$ miles in length: it irrigates 6,065 acres, and a branch is carried through the city of Cawnpore to the Memorial Gardens. Of the right bank distributaries the first is the Kansua, which takes out at mile 70 in the Farrukhabad district. At mile 18 it enters Bilhaur and thence flows for 43 miles along the watershed of the Pandu and Rind. Its only important branch is the Sheoli, 13 miles long: the average area watered from this system is 21,180 acres. The Madhopur distributary, from mile 104, and the Ranjitpur, from mile 119, supply the tract between the canal and the Pandu: the system comprises $56\frac{3}{8}$ miles of channel and irrigates 13,332 acres. Lastly the Haluakhada distributary, which now takes out of the Fatehpur branch but is treated as a part of the Cawnpore branch, is an important line which for two miles runs parallel to the canal, and then, crossing the Dabauli escape in a duct, bears, away to the south along the watershed of the Ganges and Pandu. It commands a considerable area in Cawnpore and Narwal, but the irrigation has not yet been fully developed, and some new channels are being constructed: at present the total length is $24\frac{1}{4}$ miles, and the annual irrigation 5,218 acres.

Drainage
and other
works.

Besides the main outlet there are two escapes—from Kakwan into the Pandu at mile 103, and at Dabauli into the same river at mile 133, though the latter is very rarely used. The Pandu is also utilized for the reception of drainage from several small cuts excavated for the relief of certain areas in abnormally wet seasons: these are mostly close to the right bank of the canal though at Manawan, in mile 101, a syphon has been made under the canal for taking off the drainage from the left bank. The most important drainage question is that of the area lying between the canal and the Sheorajpur

distributary. There is good outfall into the Non, but the upper portions of the catchment are liable to suffer after heavy and continuous rain, and steps are now being taken to remedy this defect. Another series of small drains deals with the area between the canal and the Kalyanpur distributary from mile 127 to 135: a portion of the flood discharge is turned into the canal, but the main outfall is carried by a syphon into the Dabauli escape. There are 22 bridges over the canal before reaching the city, in which there are ten others seldom more than a furlong apart. The locks are at Kharpatpur, Kakwan, Ranjitpur and Nauraiya Khera, where the Fatehpur branch takes off, as well as those at the tail-fall. Inspection bungalows are maintained at Kharpatpur, Kakwan, Jagatpur, Hulkapur, Bara Sirohi and Nauraiya Khera on the main line; at Bachhna, Pura and Keona on the Sheorajpur distributary at Maharajpur on the Taktauli; and at Dhakpurwa, Shalibazpur, Bhaupur and Sheoli on the Kansua. There are unlicensed canal telegraph offices at Kakwan, Sheoli, Ranjitpur, Nauraiya Khera and Cawnpore.

The idea of carrying a canal through the lower Doab ^{Fatehpur branch.} seems to have been peculiarly attractive, if one may judge from the number of times the project was mooted and shelved. Although the scheme of a navigable channel to Allahabad was finally dropped in 1879, it was not long before a fresh proposal was made to utilize the line originally intended for the Lower Ganges canal by the construction of a branch from the Cawnpore terminal along the *doab* of the Pandu and Rind, and thence into the districts of Fatehpur and Allahabad. The additional supply derived from the headworks at Narora resulted in a certain amount of wastage at the tail-fall, and the desire to employ this for further works of irrigation led to a new survey of the country in 1883 and the submission, in the following year, of a detailed project for the Cawnpore branch extension by Captain Clibborn. Though the scheme met with general approval, on account of the Nadrai disaster and other reasons, sanction for the commencement of the canal was not obtained till 1893, and as a matter of fact, no funds were forthcoming till the beginning of 1895. In that year the name was changed to that of the Fatehpur branch and excavation was started,

the work being completed in 1902, though irrigation was started in December 1898. The canal has a total length of 25 miles in this district and has proved of great service, although its work is mainly confined to Fatehpur and Allahabad. For the purpose of economy it has been laid down that the maximum irrigation from all sources in village shall not exceed 45 per cent. of the cultivated area. The headworks of the canal are situated just above the point where the main line of the East Indian Railway crosses the Cawnpore branch in mile 131, the water being passed through a regulator of seven bays, each of six feet span; and from the same point an escape capable of carrying the entire discharge of the canal leads into the Pandu. The channel is carried over that river in the second mile by a fine aqueduct, and then bends southwards as far as Bidhnu, a short distance above that village passing over the Ramaipur drainage line on which a syphon is provided. From Bidhnu the canal maintains a south-easterly course past Sarh and Muhammadpur, soon afterwards entering the Fatehpur district. Irrigation in the two tahsils of Cawnpore and Narwal is effected by a number of minors, most of which supply the lands on the left bank. Those on the left are the Magrasa, the Ramaipur, the Majhawan, in turn giving off the Jagdispur, the Kundauli supplying the Hardauli; the Amor, the Barai, with its branch the Chhatarwa; the Ratepur and the Aranj, which has a length of about four miles in this district and also gives off the Shah minor. On the right bank are the Kakori, Dalepur and Deosarh in the extreme south of tahsil Cawnpore; and the Gopipur, Karchulipur and Akbarpur in Narwal. The total length of distributaries and minors in this district is about 38 miles, and the average area irrigated during the five years ending with 1906-07 was 6,905 acres in the *kharif* and 3,239 in the *rabi*. There are 22 bridges over the canal, and inspection bungalows are maintained at Bidhnu in the Cawnpore tahsil, and at Sarh and Muhammadpur in Narwal.

**Etawah
branch.**

The construction of the Etawah branch was commenced in 1850-51, and in the course of three years the channel had been excavated as far as Banna Jakha. The original plan

had included terminal works on the Jumna at Garahtha, but though the navigation channel was carried to within four miles of the proposed tail it was never completed, the escape water being passed into a ravine. As in the case of the Cawnpore branch, the bridges in several instances were raised, but in 1871 the work was dropped and the project of a regular outlet into the Jumna by a series of locks was finally abandoned. Two years later another length of 21 miles was converted into a mere escape, the canal proper ending at Banna Jakha, below which place distributaries were substituted for the main channel. In this district the canal follows closely the line of the East Indian Railway, traversing the centre of the Derapur tahsil and a portion of Akbarpur. The principal distributaries are the right and left Dibiapur, which take out in Etawah and keep close to the canal on either side; the Mangalpur, which supplies the country to the south and passes by Mangalpur, Khanpur Dilwal and Nonari; the right and left Juria, which are practically continuations of the two Dibiapur channels; and the Jhinhak, which is fed from the right Juria. At Banna Jakha the surplus water is directed into the Ghatampur, Reona and Akbarpur distributaries, all of considerable importance. The Akbarpur distributary irrigates the high lands along the Sengar as far as its confluence with the Jumna, and itself tails into that river below Ghausganj. The Reona keeps close to the left bank of the old main canal for almost its entire length, and gives off a number of valuable minors in the Akbarpur and Ghatampur tahsils. There is an important escape into the Rind near Rura, and a somewhat extensive drainage system has been carried out in connection with the canal, embracing on the left bank the Maheria drain from near Jhinhak, which runs into a ravine of the Rind after a course of three miles; the Delagaon drain, $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles in length, from Sithmara to the Rind, and the Guteha drain of one mile emptying into the Rura escape. It is also proposed to undertake measures for improving the drainage of the low areas in Akbarpur at the heads of the Non and Neor rivers. On the right bank there is the Jhinhak drain, two and a half miles long, leading into the Ratwaha; the Akbarpur drain, which runs from the first mile of the Akbarpur distributary for some six miles and

falls into the Sengar; and four small drains connected with the Mangalpur distributary. There are twenty-four bridges over the canal and inspection bungalows at Jhinjhalak, Rura, where is also a telegraph office, Banna Jakha, Nabipur, Girsi, Reona and Garahtha on the main canal, and at Nonari on the Mangalpur distributary. The average area irrigated by this system is 23,987 acres in the *kharif* and 42,615 in the *rabi* harvest.

Ghatam-
pur distri-
butary.

The Ghatampur distributary dates from 1869, when a project was drawn up for replacing the short and badly aligned Tigain by a new channel of considerable length, intended to irrigate the east of Akbarpur and a large portion of Ghatampur between the Rind and the Non. After some delay, due to the discussions on the general question of the Lower Ganges canal, sanction was given to the undertaking in 1873. The course adopted for the distributary was almost parallel to that of the Rind: nearly due east from Banna Jakha as far as Patelpur Roshnai, and thence south to Ghatampur, near which place it tailed into a ravine of the Non, though the original intention had been to continue the canal into pargana Kora of the Patelpur district. By 1874 the line had been completed for a distance of 26 miles, and this was afterwards extended to 35, exclusive of the Jalalabad distributary which takes off at mile 30 close to Ghatampur. The remainder of the project was left in abeyance but was brought up in an amended form in 1885, this contemplating the conversion of the existing main line from mile 24 into the Bhadras distributary and the construction at that point of a bifurcating regulator, the new main line to continue along the Rind to Pandri, thence south to Itarra at mile 36 and thence eastwards into Narwal and Kora. The execution of the design was postponed for various reasons till 1894, when it was at length taken in hand and completed without further modification. From Itarra an escape leads into the Rind, and on the opposite bank a large distributary, ten miles in length and known as the Paras: runs southwards as far as Gori. In mile 38 the Bari and Bhadwara distributaries leave the canal, irrigating a dry tract which extends into Kora; and another series of distributaries supplies an extensive area in the Patelpur district. Altogether the canal irrigates on an average 24,146 acres of *kharif* and 13,344 acres of *rabi*

crops in this district. For administrative purposes it forms part of the Fatehpur division, the headquarters of which are at Cawnpore. There are inspection bungalows at Charora, Manethu, Dharampur and Husaina on the main line, at Ghatampur on the Bhadras and at Taga on the Paras distributary.

The Bhognipur branch of the Lower Ganges canal enters this district at mile 104 and terminates at Alampur, some four miles lower down. From this point the supply is utilized by means of three major channels, known as the Alipur, Rasdhan and Sikandra distributaries, which with their branches command almost all the country between the Sengar and Jumna. The first of these, including the Kaklapur minor, is $12\frac{3}{4}$ miles in length and runs north and east, irrigating the south-west of the Derapur tahsil, the average being 5,479 acres. The Rasdhan distributary at first follows the boundary of Derapur and Bhognipur, and then turns into the latter tahsil: with its branches, of which the chief are the Nanthu on the left and the Baraur and Atwa on the right, it is $50\frac{1}{4}$ miles in length and irrigates on an average 24,370 acres. The Sikandra distributary supplies the west and south of Bhognipur. It terminates near Amrodha, and its principal branches are the Salahra, Sathra and Bhognipur, of which the last extends to the end of the *doab* and in its turn gives off the Akorhi. The total length is 75 miles, irrigating on an average 28,551 acres. The entire system during the five years ending with 1906-07 supplied in this district 21,487 acres on an average in the *kharij* and 41,331 in the *rabi* harvest. There are two drainage cuts in this district, one known as the Gurdahi some five miles long, which starts from the first mile of the Rasdhan distributary, and after crossing the Alipur falls into a ravine of the Sengar; and the other called the Kasolar, which is seven miles in length and follows the left bank of the main canal from mile 104 to 106, and thence runs northwards into the Sengar. Inspection bungalows are maintained at Zainpur, Akorhi, Bhognipur, Gurdahi and Nandpur, and there is a telegraph office at Alampur.

The facilities for irrigation by means of wells vary inversely with the depth of the water level, although other

factors have to be taken into account, such as the nature of the subsoil and the influence of percolation from the canals. The water level is highest in the tract along the Ganges, where it ranges from 20 to 25 feet below the surface, although on the high cliff itself the depth is considerably greater. In the central plain it ranges from 20 to 40 feet; while in the Jumna tahsils it is from 60 to 80 feet or even more. In many parts of Bhognipur the depth is such that it is a matter of considerable labour to obtain water even for domestic purposes, and in some villages a joint stock of cattle is maintained at the chief wells merely for supplying water for household use. The wells in this district are of various types, but for agricultural purposes the *pakka* well of cemented and pointed masonry is rarely employed, and is indeed considered as an unnecessary extravagance. Such wells exist in considerable numbers, but are usually reserved for the supply of drinking water or else are a relic of the palmy days of indigo planting. The cost varies with the size and depth of the cylinder, but is seldom less than Rs. 300 and generally three or four times that sum. The most popular form of well is the half-masonry type, of small diameter and lined with bricks, either set in mortar or merely fitted together. Occasionally such wells are regularly sunk; but more often the shaft is lined with bricks from the bottom, while in some cases the process is not continued throughout but only so far as to prevent the sides from falling in on account of the filtration of the water. In many cases, and particularly in the canal tracts, where the stability of the subsoil has been affected, such treatment is extended to old earthen wells, the result being that they are rendered more efficient and command a larger area than before, whereas the omission of a brick lining would probably involve the complete destruction of the well. For this reason it is very difficult to compare present and past figures. In 1870 there were 7,357 masonry wells of all kinds, while in 1907 the total was 11,650, of which 8,438 were actually employed for irrigation in that year. During the currency of the settlement 6,042 wells were constructed, but it is impossible to say how many of these were previously in existence in an unprotected form. Of late years fresh construction has proceeded very rapidly, and it is worthy of note that, with few exceptions, the new wells are to be

attributed either to tenants or to cultivating communities. The cost of these half-masonry wells ranges from one hundred to four hundred rupees, and it has been estimated that during the currency of the last settlement the amount expended on this account was between twelve and fifteen lakhs. On the other hand the number of unprotected wells shows a marked decrease, the total in 1870 being 34,593 whereas in 1907 it was only 13,393, although the number is liable to be increased to an indefinite extent in seasons of drought. The cost of construction of an unbricked well ranges from Rs. 5 to Rs. 25, the expenditure depending upon the nature of the subsoil. Where the latter is firm such wells have been known to last for forty years, though in places their life may be put at two or three seasons or even less. Where this is the case the well is generally strengthened with coils of tamarisk twigs or *arhar* stalks, but such measures are of little avail where the shaft is subjected to percolation from a canal. Wells of all kinds are worked in the ordinary manner by means of bullocks drawing up the water in a *pur* or leathern bucket, the number of *purs* and bullock-runs depending on the size of the well. The only exception to this rule is in the low *kachhar* tracts, where the water is very near the surface and is raised by means of the *dhunkh* or lever.

Other sources of supply are very unimportant, and the area watered from them does not exceed six per cent. of the total irrigation, except in tahsil Bilhaur, where some 5,000 acres are irrigated on an average from tanks, swamps and streams. A number of tanks were excavated during the great famine of 1837, but in practically every case they have fallen into disrepair and it is doubtful whether they were ever used to any extent. The *jhils* are commonly utilized when occasion requires, but they seldom afford sufficient for more than one watering, and in dry years, when they are most required, they fail altogether. The streams are seldom employed for the purposes of irrigation with the sole exception of the Isan, which is extensively employed by the Kurni cultivators of its sandy valley, where the construction of wells is a practical impossibility.

Practically nothing is known with regard to the experience of the district under the pressure of famine at any time prior

Other
sources.

Early
famines.

to the introduction of British rule. It is certain that such calamities were of frequent occurrence and that the district of Cawnpore was far less able to withstand the effects of these visitations than at the present day, when it is equipped with a fairly complete system of canal irrigation rendering it in a large measure secure against a failure of the rains. In the absence of any specific reference to this tract it is only possible to conjecture that the history of droughts is much the same in this district as in the Doab as a whole. The historians refer only to the famines of great magnitude, when the scarcity of food was such as to render the whole country desolate: and for this reason it is impossible to compare the present condition of affairs with that of earlier epochs. We are told that the famine of 1345 converted the fertile plain of the Doab into a wilderness, and matters were rendered worse by the capricious cruelty of Muhammad bin Tughlaq, who then ruled at Delhi. Other terrible famines occurred in 1424 and 1471, and the next of general importance was the great visitation of 1631, which followed on two successive seasons of drought and is said to have desolated the whole of Asia. Though it was worst in the south of India, the distress seems to have been universal, and no amount of benevolence could avail when food was not to be purchased. Thirty years later another extraordinary drought ensued; but the relief measures undertaken by Aurangzeb in bringing grain from Bengal and the Punjab to the parts affected seemed to show that the centre of famine lay near Delhi and in the upper Doab. In 1770 there was general famine in Bengal: but the scarcity in this district seems to have been of no great importance, since the officer commanding the fort at Allahabad was able to collect grain for the relief of the east, and the bulk of the amount transported came from Kora. There was no acute distress in the province but prices were inordinately high, with the result that lawlessness was rife and the convoys of grain were seldom allowed to pass unmolested. The first famine of which we have any definite notice, as affecting the present district of Cawnpore, is that of 1783-84, known as the *chailisa*, from its occurrence in the year 1840 *Sambat*. The absence of rain had been very marked in the preceding year; and when this was followed by a complete failure of the monsoon the distress became

general, and was aggravated by the extensive migration of starving people from Bundelkhand. As to the actual degree of intensity with which the famine visited Cawnpore there seems to be some dispute, for while Colonel Baird Smith states on the authority of an eye-witness that it was the worst calamity known for a century, Mr. Rose, who conducted the first regular settlement, asserts that on this occasion there was not such an absence of vegetation as to cause the cattle to starve, and that the coarser food grains, such as *moth*, yielded a fair harvest. It is clear, however, that the calamity was of an exceptional nature, if only for the reason that wheat sold for eight *seers* to the rupee. The famine abated in the spring of 1784, although prices long remained high and the effects of the visitation were felt for many years.

Shortly after the cession of the district the autumn ^{Famine} harvest of 1803 proved an entire failure, and this was followed ^{of 1803.} by an almost complete loss of the ensuing spring harvest. The effect on this district was disastrous, for while prices were so high that a bounty of Rs. 24 per hundred maunds was paid on all wheat and barley imported to Cawnpore, the *zamindars* and cultivators were reduced to the greatest straits by reason of the excessive revenue demand. Many landholders threw up their engagements and absconded and no one would contract for the vacant estates, although revenue was remitted to the amount of Rs. 2,33,197 and the suspension of a similar sum was granted. Further remissions were afterwards found necessary, since only in the Bithur tahsil was any appreciable amount of *rabi* harvested, and the total sum surrendered by Government is said to have been Rs. 5,13,719. A large sum was distributed in advances for the construction of wells and other agricultural purposes, relieving the pressure to a considerable extent; but a long interval elapsed before the district recovered its normal condition of prosperity, while perhaps the most important result was the disastrous effect of the famine on the old proprietary communities, who never regained their lost position, but steadily went from bad to worse. Indeed, throughout the first half of the nineteenth century the experiences of the district were peculiarly unhappy. The rains again failed in 1812, causing distress in that and the following year, which was considered by the collector to be even more severe than

that of 1803. Very little is known of this calamity beyond the statement that prices were higher than ever before, and that revenue was remitted to the amount of some Rs. 27,000. Again in 1819 prices were very high on account of drought, and the fact that corn was imported in large quantities from the west shows that the suffering in this district must have been acute. The revenue for 1818-19 was collected with great difficulty and a considerable balance accumulated, while in the following year remissions were made to the extent of Rs. 20,905. The distress was prolonged by the tardy arrival of the rains in 1819 and the consequent contraction of the *kharif* area, while at the same time the district was filled with immigrants from Bundelkhand. Eventually abundant rain in September permitted the cultivation of a full *rabi* area, and all signs of famine terminated with the advent of the harvest. The drought of 1825-26 seems to have affected the parganas adjoining Etawah and Farrukhabad and throughout the district prices were abnormally high, although it does not appear that any remissions of revenue were granted on this occasion.

Famine
1837.

In 1833-34 Bundelkhand was visited with a severe drought and famine, the effects of which were partially felt all over this district and acutely so in the southern parganas. The *kharif* is said to have been a total failure, but in the irrigated parganas along the Ganges the *rabi* harvest was plentiful and the revenue was paid without much difficulty. Along the Jumna, however, both crops utterly failed, and although the greater part of the revenue was realized, it is to be feared that this was achieved only at the cost of the accumulated profits for many years. The remissions amounted to Rs. 33,245, of which Rs. 21,525 were granted in Bhognipur and the bulk of the remainder in Ghatampur and Akbarpur. The district had not recovered from the losses of 1833-34 when it was visited by the terrible famine of 1837-38. On the 28th of August 1837 Mr. Rose reported that the *kharif* was a failure. With the exception of a slight shower no rain had fallen in Bilhaur and Rasulabad since March; there was an entire absence of vegetation, even the trees being stripped of their leaves, and the cattle were dying by thousands. A slight fall of rain in October had saved a portion of the *juar* and *bajra* in the south and east of the

district, but elsewhere the country was a barren waste and there were no means of sowing the land for the *rabi*. Not a vestige of cultivation was to be seen within twenty miles of the Jumna, and whole villages became depopulated by famine and emigration. This was the first occasion on which relief works were started by Government, and these were opened in all tahsils except Cawnpore and Narwal. The amount thus expended was Rs. 180 daily, and though this was increased to Rs. 210 in February, the sum proved quite insufficient, and large numbers of applicants had to be rejected. The aged and infirm had to depend on private charity, and a relief society organised at Cawnpore supported about 1,500 persons daily. From November 1837 to July in the following year the amount expended in relief was Rs. 68,918 and the number of persons who thus benefited was 1,228,604, exclusive of those receiving relief from the cantonment magistrate and private societies. These figures afford but a faint idea of the distress that prevailed. The parganas along the Ganges were the first to feel the drought; but the cultivators were able, by incessant labour, to raise sufficient produce in the *rabi* for the bare maintenance of themselves and their families; while in the tracts along the Jumna a certain amount of the *khari* had escaped, though the depth of the water level accounted for an entire absence of spring crops. In either case the suffering of the people was appalling, and the immense mortality from actual starvation was increased by widespread epidemics of smallpox and cholera. At Cawnpore the Ganges, which then contained but little water, was choked with corpses, and it is said that large numbers who were too proud to beg poisoned themselves and their families sooner than endure the pain of starvation. Under such circumstances it was only natural that the collection of the revenue should entirely break down. The balances of 1837-38 and the following year amounted to nearly twenty lakhs, and it was found necessary to remit the sum of Rs. 17,25,244. The results of this calamity lasted for several years, and on this account much difficulty was experienced in ascertaining the revenue-paying capacity of the district at the settlement of 1840. It is indeed remarkable that the tract should have recovered as quickly as it did; for when the report on the settlement was compiled there was

hardly anywhere a perceptible decrease of cultivation save in Bhognipur and the southern portions of Derapur and Ghatampur.

1860-78.

The next great failure of the rains occurred in 1860, but with the exception of the distress caused by high prices, the district seems to have escaped comparatively lightly, and the only sign of famine was the great number of immigrants who streamed into the district from the west. High prices again prevailed in 1865, but though the *kharif* was far below the average, the ensuing harvest proved abundant and all apprehension vanished. By this time canal irrigation had been introduced and its beneficial effects was felt from the first, although a long period elapsed before the precarious country along the Jumna was rendered in any degree secure. It was largely on this account that in 1868-69 the condition of Cawnpore was perhaps more favourable than that of any other portion of the tract affected by the failure of the rains. The prolonged drought in August 1868 resulted in the destruction of the greater part of the *kharif*; but the district experienced the full benefit of the rain in September, with the result that the cultivators flocked back to their villages, which they had begun to desert, and prepared the land for an unusually large spring crop. Immense stores of grain had been accumulated in the expectation of a famine, and these were sold at comparatively easy rates: but the prices rose again during the cold weather. The following *rabi* was fair, though gram and *arhar* suffered somewhat from frost; but there was no lack of employment, owing to the construction of railways, canals and metalled roads then in progress. Generally it may be said that the condition of the labouring classes was satisfactory throughout, there was no need of relief works or poorhouses and trade was in a most flourishing condition, the amount of grain which flowed into Cawnpore during 1868-69 and the following year being estimated at two and a half millions of maunds. The autumn harvest in 1869 was greatly injured by heavy and late rain in September and October, though this appears to have caused no distress and the district speedily resumed its normal state. The experiences of 1877-78 were very similar, although the wide extent of the famine caused an abnormal rise in prices. By the end of August 1877 it was

reported that the crop sown in July was still alive but that the rest had failed completely, and while there was no distress among the people, great anxiety was felt for the cattle. The continuation of the drought caused scarcity in the Jumna tracts, but the canal irrigated parganas were fairly prosperous. Good general rain fell in October, enabling the *rabi* to be sown and relieving the market, so that by this time distress had ceased to exist. Relief on this occasion was confined to the last six miles of the Mughal road between Sikandra and the Etawah border. Large numbers attended the works in the beginning of October: but after a week rain fell, dispersing the labourers to their fields. A certain number still remained, however, and the work was not finally closed till the middle of February 1878, the total attendance, counted by daily units, being 45,632 persons. The revenue demand was suspended to the amount of Rs. 29,891, of which Rs. 4,094 was subsequently remitted on account of the Rasulabad rice crop, and a good deal of private relief was undertaken in the city of Cawnpore on the part of the wealthier residents. The unimportance of the famine is amply illustrated by the fact that the total expenditure on relief works was only Rs. 8,918, of which Rs. 5,744 were charged to provincial funds.

It was probably owing to the circumstance that the district escaped so lightly on this occasion that no evil results attended the failure of the rains in 1880, although the total fall was the lowest ever recorded. It was inevitable that a great contraction should have taken place in the area sown both in the *kharij* and in the ensuing *rabi*; but though much anxiety was felt for a time no signs of distress were apparent and no relief measures proved necessary. The case was otherwise in 1897, when the district had for several years been suffering from unfavourable seasons which had brought about great deterioration in the poorer tracts. The rains of 1896 proved very inadequate and the *kharij* outturn was little more than one-sixth of the normal, the parts most affected being Ghatampur, Narwal and Bhognipur. Elsewhere there was no distress save that occasioned by the rise of prices, which by January 1897 was pressing severely on the labouring population. The initial step in the matter of relief was the distribution of advances on an

1896-97.

extended scale in October 1896, and this proved of the greatest value in giving confidence to the people. Many thought that the sowings would come to nought; but the venture was justified by its results, for the winter rains ensured the safety of the crop and largely assisted in averting disaster. In the matter of the area sown with *rabi* crops Cawnpore stood far ahead of the other districts of the division, the amount being about 85 per cent. of the normal. This in itself implied extensive employment for the labouring classes: and the result was due mainly to the action of Government, imitated in many instances by the landowners. The outturn of the harvest was satisfactory in the irrigated tracts, but in dry lands, especially in the three distressed tahsils, it was necessarily poor, so that for the whole district it did not average more than 42 per cent. of the normal. Relief works under the Public Works department were started on the 4th of December 1896 and remained open till the 23rd of July following, although the attendance had shrunk to insignificant proportions by the end of May. The works, which were confined to the improvement of existing roads, were conducted at first on the intermediate system; but this gave rise to complaints and the ordinary code system was adopted, a piece-work scale being introduced when the numbers decreased at the time of harvest. The total attendance on these works, which were mainly confined to the Mughal road, was 5,187,710 persons, counted by daily units, and the cost was Rs. 3,25,367, including gratuitous relief to the amount of Rs. 53,581. The attendance rose from 8,760 at the end of December to 65,822 in January and to 118,540 at the close of the following month; but it fell at the end of March to 13,763 and in April to 1,096, while the expected increase in May proved very small and during the last week only 1,759 persons remained. Small works, under civil officers, consisting in the deepening of 39 tanks, afforded relief to a comparatively insignificant number; but much was done by the establishment of poorhouses at all the tahsil headquarters except Derapur and Bilhaur, and the distribution of gratuitous relief to necessitous persons at their homes. These operations were inaugurated in November 1896 and lasted till the close of the following September. The total number

of persons thus benefited was very large, and the expenditure under the various heads was Rs. 1,80,194. A further sum of Rs. 83,674 was expended by the committee of the charitable relief fund, and was devoted mainly to the purchase of cattle for cultivators or else to the distribution of money doles for the respectable poor. Altogether the expenditure by Government on account of famine amounted to Rs. 6,20,442, exclusive of the money spent by the charitable organisations, and also of remissions of land revenue to the extent of Rs. 2,12,063, while suspensions of Rs. 6,33,152 were made for two years. The relief measures were entirely successful, for though the district escaped lightly in comparison with its neighbours there was acute distress for some time in the un-irrigated tracts. The adequacy of the relief given was proved by the rapid recovery that ensued. No class of the population was permanently injured: and from one point of view the famine may have actually done good, since the drought counterbalanced the excessive rainfall of the preceding years, and the rise in prices undoubtedly gave a stimulus to agriculture which was much needed to overcome the depression that had characterised the past decade, and had been vastly more injurious in its effects.

In 1905 the early cessation of the rains, followed by pro-tracted drought, resulted in a deficient *khari* harvest in the tracts bordering on the Jumna in the Ghatampur and Bhognipur tahsils. The absence of water rendered it impossible to prepare the fields for *rabi* sowings, save where a supply was obtainable from the canal. Indeed the value of the latter could not have been more clearly illustrated, since in Bhognipur green and luxuriant crops were to be seen side by side with fields in which not a trace of vegetation was visible. The total area affected was about 725 square miles in extent, and of this 106 square miles were protected by irrigation. Naturally the demand for water was far greater than the available supply; but by judicious distribution an average *rabi* outturn of about 14 annas was secured, while in the unprotected tracts it was less than half the normal. There was no actual difficulty in the supply of food-grains, which were imported both by rail and by cart in large quantities from Cawnpore; but on the other hand the scarcity of fodder was very marked, so that the loss of cattle from

actual starvation was considerable, while in many cases the owners were compelled to sell their beasts for slaughter. Another great difficulty was the scarcity of water; and to remedy this several tanks were filled from the canals, and in seven villages wells were bored by the Agricultural department to the great benefit of the places concerned. There were no visible signs of famine in the tract beyond the obvious effects of drought: no migration and no unusual sickness or mortality; but distress was generally prevalent at the beginning of 1906, and towards the end of January relief works were started on the Mughal road and on that from Srinagar to Baripal, embracing a total length of 12½ miles. These works remained opened till the middle of June and afforded employment to 496,438 persons counted by daily units, including dependents. During the same period eleven village works were maintained in Bhognipur and nine in Ghatampur for the purpose of giving relief to the high-caste population, to which they were carefully restricted: they consisted in the deepening of tanks, and were managed through the agency of the landholders. In this way 56,301 persons were usefully employed at a total cost of Rs. 3,963, that of the public relief works being Rs. 31,054. In addition gratuitous relief was distributed in cash to 243,113 persons at their homes, this method being continued till the second week in September; and two poorhouses were kept open till the middle of July, the total number of persons attending them being 10,378. The land revenue of the affected area was Rs. 5,43,809 and of this Rs. 1,64,852 were remitted: the rest was recovered in full, with the exception of a small balance of Rs. 4,330 in Bhognipur. In the rest of the district no relief operations proved necessary, but the revenue was remitted to the extent of Rs. 1,01,838. These measures, supplemented by liberal advances for agricultural purposes, enabled the people to weather the storm successfully, and with the reaping of the *khari* all traces of the former distress had disappeared.

Prices.

The materials for a history of prices are far more abundant than is the case with most districts, as in the case of the principal food-grains fairly complete lists are available from 1814 onwards. It should be noted, however, that the

rates for all years up to 1861 are those of harvest time and not for the whole year, nor either for retail transactions in the bazars: and it is a matter of speculation as to what deductions should be made so as to arrive at the actual average prices current. The noticeable feature of the returns is the astonishing cheapness, as compared with present rates, that prevailed in the first half of the century. From 1816 to 1825 the average price of wheat was 29·24, of *juar* 44·45 and of *bajra* 43·65 *sers* to the rupee. In the following decade the harvest rates were 32·58 for wheat, 42·63 for *juar* and 42·6 *sers* for *bajra*, although at Cawnpore itself wheat fetched 26·29, while barley and gram were 38·65 and 33·88 *sers* respectively. The averages of the next ten years are vitiated by the famine of 1837, which may therefore be omitted, those for the remaining nine years being 30·73 *sers* for wheat, 42·02 for *juar* and 39·52 for *bajra*, while the city rates were 23·99 *sers* of wheat, 33·16 of barley and 29·19 of gram. As yet there was no perceptible rise in prices and a period of extraordinary plenty followed, the rates for 1850 and the next year being the lowest on record. From 1846 to 1855 the averages were 39·05 *sers* of wheat, 61·45 of *juar* and 58·93 *sers* of *bajra* for the rupee. With the Mutiny, though not apparently on its account, a marked change occurred, and this was enhanced by the advent of a series of bad years and indifferent harvests, while doubtless the introduction of railways and the stimulus given to trade were not without effect. It should be noted, however, that from 1861 onwards the rates are those given in the official returns and refer to retail transactions, so that the actual rise was not so great as at first sight appears. For the ten years ending with 1865 the averages were 25·91 *sers* per rupee for wheat, 32·32 for *juar* and 33·72 for *bajra*, while in the second half of the period barley sold at 30·7 and gram at 25·45 *sers*. Then came more bad harvests and a further development of the export trade, the averages from 1866 to 1875 being 17·17 *sers* of wheat, 24·51 of *juar*, 22·24 of *bajra*, 24·97 of barley and 22·44 of gram. In spite of the general famine of 1877-78 the upward tendency appears to have been checked, and after the recovery from that calamity prices ruled remarkably low, the rates for the decade terminating in 1885 being 19·71 *sers* of wheat, 26·99 of *juar*, 25·01

of *bajra*, 27·88 of barley and 24·19 of gram. The change was but shortlived, for in all districts the year 1886 marks the commencement of a new era in the history of prices. Silver had depreciated in value, railways were being extended in all directions, the export trade was assuming proportions undreamed of before, and consequently the price of agricultural produce was enormously enhanced. Added to this a cycle of unfavourable seasons set in about 1891, and while the population was increasing at an unprecedented rate, the supply of food was running short. From 1886 to 1895 the averages were 15·92 *seers* of wheat for the rupee, 21·29 of *juar*, 20·03 of *bajra*, 22·16 of barley and 22·29 of gram. Then came the famine of 1897, and two years later widespread scarcity in central and southern India. Money was cheaper than ever, and those farmers who secured a crop reaped a golden harvest. With the beginning of the new century and a period of great agricultural prosperity the markets became easier, but the rates have not shown any sign of a return to the level of those prevailing before 1886. For the ten years ending with 1905 the averages were 12·65 *seers* of wheat, 20·74 of *juar*, 19·55 of *bajra*, 19·26 of barley and 17·42 *seers* of gram. These figures bear witness to a very great rise during the past fifty years. To estimate that rise precisely is almost impossible, and for several reasons, the chief being that whereas in former days the fluctuations were sudden and enormous, at the present time they are far more gradual owing to the general tendency towards the equalisation of prices over a large area. With railways and telegraphs it is impossible that corn should be dear in Cawnpore and cheap in Delhi, and the difference in the rates can never exceed at most the cost of freight between the two places; while it is known that in 1804 the people of Delhi were dying of starvation although at no greater distance than Meerut wheat was selling at more than a maund for the rupee. Further, it cannot yet be ascertained whether the condition of agricultural affairs during the last twenty years can be regarded as normal, although probably the same doubt was felt in the two preceding periods. Allowing that twenty years includes a fair average of good and bad seasons, the rise is obvious. Taking the three staples wheat, *bajra* and *juar*, we find that from 1866 to 1885 the rates were 41 per cent.

higher than in the twenty years ending with 1845, and that from 1886 to 1905 the increase amounted to 52 per cent.; or otherwise stated, the average rates of the last twenty years are nearly 20 per cent. higher than those of the two preceding decades.

It is impossible to deal satisfactorily with the question of wages, for the reason that no reliable statistics are obtainable with regard to the rates prevailing in former days. The official returns show that there has been a very marked increase in the remuneration of labour, since from 1876 to 1885 the average rates were Rs. 3·82 per mensem for unskilled labourers and Rs. 7·58 for ordinary artisans. In the following decade the rise in wages was as marked as that in prices, the average rates being Rs. 4·15 for the former and Rs. 9·27 for the latter class of labourers; while for the ten years ending with 1905 the rates were Rs. 4·7 and Rs. 9·84, respectively, those of the last year being no less than Rs. 5·72 and Rs. 11·38. A regular wage census was taken in 1906, and this showed that the average wage of unskilled labour in the city was from Rs. 5·6 to Rs. 7·5; that of blacksmiths from Rs. 14 to Rs. 22; of firemen from Rs. 8 to 12; and of fitters and carpenters from Rs. 15 to Rs. 30. These figures amply illustrate the increasing demand for labour in the city as a natural result of its surprising industrial development. The labour problem is always present in a more or less acute form, and probably in no other industrial centre in these provinces is a better opening to be found for skilled workmen. In the rural tracts of course conditions are very different. The average cash wage of agricultural labourers has undergone but little change and ranges from the traditional rate of two annas to nine pice per diem, reaching ten pice in the tahsils nearest the city. The rates show indeed a tendency to rise, but the general increase during the past thirty years has not been more than one or at the most two pice daily. There is generally a special rate for ploughmen, who get from three to four annas daily, while village artisans usually obtain from $3\frac{3}{4}$ to $4\frac{3}{4}$ annas, though these figures are perhaps the least trustworthy since so much depends on individual capability.

Weights
and
measures.

The weights and measures both of the city and the district are extraordinarily complex. In former days there was a considerable variety of local weights, based apparently on the Farrukhabad rupee of 173 grains, though very probably their origin was far more ancient, going back to the *dam* of the Suris and Mughals or else to the still older *tanka*. Possibly, too, the heavy *maddusahi* pice of 270 grains was not without its influence, as this coin seems to be responsible for the many different weights found in the neighbouring parts of Oudh beyond the Ganges: and it is significant that the old local standards of this district are in all cases exact or very nearly exact multiples of that pice. At the present time several local weights are to be met with in the rural markets, but these appear to have been affected by the increase in the weight of the rupee to 180 grains. At all events none of them can be traced directly to the Farrukhabad rupee, as was the case in 1845. There were then various *panseris* or weights of five *seris*, known as the *gola* of 490 Farrukhabad rupees, the *chhota* of 480 and the *bealisi* of 505 of these coins. The two first were employed for all kinds of grain, while the last, so-called from the fact that 42 *seris* went to the maund, was used for wholesale transactions in rice and sugar. At the present time a *ser* of 96 rupees is occasionally used in the Cawnpore and Akbarpur tahsils, while in Akbarpur two others are to be found of 92 and 100 *tolas*. The former occurs also in Ghatampur and the latter in Derapur, where again is a still larger *ser* of 104 rupees. In Bhognipur, on the other hand, the *ser* is generally of 93 *tolas*; but in every case the weight is considerably heavier than the Government standard, very probably resulting from the use in former days of a lighter rupee, the number of *tolas* having remained unchanged with the introduction of a heavier unit. The *kachcha* weights of Oudh are never found, and even in the case of measures of area the *kachcha* standards have vanished save in Ghatampur, where the *kachcha bigha* is equivalent to one-third of the Government measure. Elsewhere such a *kachcha bigha* was often one-half of the standard area, the latter in this district being a square of $49\frac{1}{2}$ yards or $2,450\frac{1}{4}$ square yards which occurs in no other districts except Muzaffarnagar and Saharanpur. The ordinary measures of length present no peculiar features: the English yard is in general use, though for certain purposes the *ilahi* yard of 33 inches and the *katai* or cloth yard of $32\frac{1}{2}$

inches are still employed. In the city of Cawnpore the *ser* of 180 *tolas* seems to be universally adopted, but either commercial convention or the influence of the old standards has resulted in the adoption of a great number of maunds. Whether these maunds are attributable to different *ser*s or whether they have come into existence by the action of the merchants matters little, though the former cause is perhaps the more probable, since in old days differential *ser*s undoubtedly existed. At all events the result is the same, and the diversity of maunds is extraordinarily great, almost every commodity having its own standard. The ordinary maund of 40 *ser*s is employed for fruit, vegetables, sago, flour, castor-oil, cotton-seed, bark, hides, steel, iron plates and corrugated sheets, coal and coke, slaked lime, fine wool and sometimes for glue. A maund of 41½ *ser*s is used for wheat, rice, gram, pulses and peas; one of 41 *ser*s for oils other than castor-oil; and one of 41½ *ser*s for oil-seeds. Then comes the 46-*ser* maund for cast and wrought iron pipes, iron sheets and hooping, copper, steel rods, tin when not in ingot form, Sambhar salt, cloves and Gujarat cardamums. The maund is of 48½ *ser*s for sugar, ginned cotton, hemp and jute twine, indigo cake, Lahori salt and saltpetre, zinc, betelnuts, tobacco for chewing, and in some cases for glue; while tobacco for smoking, and also molasses are weighed by a maund of 48¾ *ser*s and tin ingots by one of 48⅝ *ser*s. Resin alone has a 49-*ser* maund, while that of 50 *ser*s is adopted for coarse wool, raw cotton, charcoal, *dhenia*, Himalayan cardamums, turmeric, potatoes, paper waste and indigo seed, while indigo figs have their own maund of 50¼ *ser*s. It is curious that firewood bought by the canal should be weighed by a maund of 52½ *ser*s and that imported by rail by one of 55 *ser*s, though it is still more extraordinary that the former weight should be invariably used for almonds and raisins. It is impossible to elucidate any theory from these weights, but it is strange to find such variety in such a progressive centre of commerce as Cawnpore. It is noticeable, however, that the *bealisi* and *chota panseris* of old days have their almost exact modern equivalents in the 48½-*ser* maund of sugar and the 46-*ser* maund for metals, salt and spices.

Interest.

The prevailing rates of interest in the district differ to some extent from those obtaining in the city. In the former the most usual loans take the form of advances in cash or grain made to cultivators by the village money-lenders, who usually charge interest at 25 per cent. under the system known as *siurai*, by which the tenant borrows at seed time and repays the principal and one-fourth more as interest after harvest, the rate being sometimes enhanced by conversion of cash into grain on repayment, when the price of the latter is much less than its money value at the time of borrowing. Petty cash loans, whether in the district or the city, carry interest at the rate known as *ugahi* or *kistbandi*, whereby two rupees interest is paid on ten rupees borrowed, the repayment being made in six or twelve monthly instalments. In the case of larger loans of from Rs. 50 to Rs. 1,000 the usual rate is two per cent. per mensem and for higher amounts about half this sum, the interest depending as usual on the credit of the borrower. Where jewels or ornaments are pledged as security, the average rate is one pice per rupee per mensem; while mortgages of house property or land ordinarily carry 12 per cent. per annum in the case of small loans and 8 or 9 per cent. for larger transactions. That the latter rate is lower than usual in other districts is due to the presence in Cawnpore of several European banking establishments, which have a marked effect on the money market. Generally it will be found that in monetary transactions the Bank of Bengal rates determine those of the city as a whole; although it has been observed that when money is tight, rates are higher in the bazar, and that when it is easy they are lower than those offered by the European banking firms.

Banks.

The Bank of Bengal opened a branch in Cawnpore in 1863 or thereabouts, and serves for the district treasury. It was followed in 1887 by a branch of the Alliance Bank of Simla and in the following year by that of the Allahabad Bank, Limited. Subsequent additions have been the National Bank of India, which was started in 1863 as a Bengali concern but was afterwards transferred to London, the Cawnpore branch dating from 1898, and the People's Bank of

India, which has its headquarters at Lahore and commenced operations here in 1908, when a branch was opened in the Hathia *muhalla*.

Besides these a large number of Marwari Bankers and traders have their headquarters or branches in Cawnpore. Native firms. That of Baijnath Ramnath is now divided into two, known as Baijnath Jaggi Lal, represented by Lala Juggi Lal and Baldeo Das Kedarnath, managed by Lala Mulchand. Both reside in the Chitai Mahal and trade in money, cotton, grain flour and other articles, while the latter manages the Ganges Flour Mills, the Ganges Sugar Works near Unao and several other concerns. They originally came to Cawnpore from Farrukhabad about seventy years ago. In the same *muhalla* are the firms of Phul Chand and Jai Narayan, large bankers and cotton dealers of Hathras, and of Bihari Lal Kunji Lal, whose head office is at Mirzapur. In Kahu-ki-kothi are the bankers Tejpal Jamna Das, Srinath Shankarnath and Sheoratan Das Moti Lal, the last two doing an extensive business in piecegoods. In Nayaganj are Hulasi Ram Ram Dayal, bankers; Tulsi Ram Jia Lal, bankers and large grain merchants; Nihal Chand Baldeo Sahai, who combine banking with trade in cotton and corn; Janki Das Jagannath, who are also grain dealers and formerly belong to the last named firm, as also did Ram Chandra Janki Das, who belong to Collectorganj and deal extensively in cotton and corn. Other bankers of Collectorganj are Radha Kishan Mangat Rai, traders in grain and salt; Mathura Das Sat Narayan of Delhi, who deal in grain and cotton; and Sheomukh Rai Ramkumar, who have a similar business. Others again have establishments in Generalganj, such as the bankers Moti Lal Fateh Lal; the bankers and yarn merchants Gauri Datt Tulsi Ram, now represented by Lala Hazari Lal; Gangadhar Baijnath, who deal largely in yarn; and Ramkaran Das Ram Bilas, who are engaged in the sugar trade. Besides these mention should be made of the Government treasurer, Rai Kanhaiya Lal Bahadur, who is the head of a very flourishing banking establishment.

The history of trade at Cawnpore begins with the establishment of a Company's agency there and the selection of the place as a cantonment in 1778, the choice being doubtless due to its favourable situation on the river and the comparative accessibility of Lucknow. Trade. The town rapidly became the great

emporium for the Doab, especially in the matter of cotton, and by 1820 had assumed a position from which it has never receded in spite of the temporary set-back caused about that time by the improvement of navigation on the Jumna, which diverted much of the trade from the south and west, and the development of the indigo industry at Najafgarh, which for a brief period threatened to become a formidable rival. The construction of the grand trunk road, and subsequently of the Ganges canal and the metalled road to Lucknow, added to the incentive to trade afforded by the presence of a large military arsenal, removed all doubts as to the predominance of Cawnpore; and a further stimulus to commerce was provided by the completion of the East Indian Railway, which synchronised approximately with the opening of the first of the great tanneries and cotton mills. As early as 1847 the volume of trade passing through Cawnpore was very great. The estimated imports of the city in that year were 684,580 maunds of grain, 85,000 of other food stuffs, 14,775 of spices, 22,500 of salt, 20,000 of cotton, 50,000 of timber, 18,400 of metals and 3,300 maunds of dyes, to say nothing of piecegoods to the value of nearly nineteen lakhs and an unknown quantity of leather and other articles, the total value being about 59½ lakhs. The exports consisted principally in cotton, food stuffs, dyes, spices, leather and English goods to a total value of some 34 lakhs per annum. In 1877, just thirty years later, a careful registration of traffic was undertaken, and it was then found that the imports amounted in all to 8,300,000 maunds, of which the chief items were 3,500,000 of grain, 1,000,000 of oil-seeds, 700,000 of salt, 400,000 of timber and firewood, 350,000 of cotton, 210,000 of iron and 190,000 maunds of sugar. The exports for the same year aggregated 7,750,000 maunds, including 3,600,000 of grain 1,500,000 of oil-seeds, 275,000 of salt, 450,000 of sugar, 300,000 of cotton and 110,000 maunds of iron. By that time the city had already become the great collecting and distributing centre for the north of India. Hither was sent cloth from the Doab and Bundelkhand for Oudh and the submontane tracts; cotton, such as was not required by the mills, for Calcutta and Oudh; wheat and other grains for Calcutta, since the export trade had already assumed important dimensions; iron from Calcutta and Central India for Oudh and the Doab; salt from Calcutta and Rajputana for Oudh and Bundelkhand; sugar from

Benares, Bihar and Oudh for Bundelkhand and the Punjab; and oil-seeds and indigo seed for Calcutta and Bengal. With the rapid extension of the railway system the trade of Cawnpore has grown still more rapidly during the past thirty years, enabling it to overwhelm the once famous marts of Mirzapur and Farrukhabad. The place has become the great centre of exchange for northern India: and this rendered only natural its selection as the site of the Upper India Chamber of Commerce, which was founded in 1889 and has since attained a position of great influence as an assembly which includes practically all the European and many native commercial firms and manufacturing concerns in the United Provinces and the Punjab. The returns compiled by the Chamber deal with rail-borne traffic alone, but these are sufficient to illustrate the increase in the volume of trade. In 1907 the imports amounted to 10,346,494 maunds, including 28 lakhs of maunds of grain, ten lakhs of coal, five lakhs each of sugar, cotton and salt, four lakhs each of metals and hides and three lakhs of oil-seeds. The rail-borne exports for the same year aggregated 8,119,177 maunds, the chief items being grain, 2,450,000; oil-seeds, 990,000; cotton piecegoods and yarn, 950,000; sugar, raw and refined, 525,000; hides and skins, 240,000; raw cotton, 230,000; and salt, 130,000 maunds, in addition to an immense amount of metals and manufactured goods. The road-borne trade constitutes a very great addition to these figures, if one may judge by the seemingly endless strings of carts passing into and out of the Collectorganj market and the heavy traffic carried by the metalled highways. Its volume may be estimated by the fact that during the five years ending with 1900 the average total imports into the city per annum were 13,733,725 maunds, of which 8,303,710 maunds came by rail, 4,869,020 by road and 561,605 by river.

While Cawnpore is the greatest manufacturing centre in India outside the presidency towns its development is due almost wholly to European enterprise and initiative. The indigenous manufactures are relatively insignificant and present no features of special interest. The most extensive is that of country cloth, which is still woven in considerable quantities throughout the district, though the industry has suffered

Indigen-
ous manu-
factures.

much from the competition of factory-made goods. Cotton-printing is to be found in a few places such as Musanagar, but is now unimportant. Vessels of brass and other metals are made at Cawnpore, some of the suburaban villages and a few other places, but the metal trade is concerned mainly with articles from Mirzapur and elsewhere. A certain amount of cheap cutlery is made at Cawnpore, chiefly in imitation of English goods, but the workmanship is not as a rule of a high quality. The pottery of the district presents no peculiar features and the same may be said of the manufacture of glass, almost solely in the form of bangles, which is carried on to some extent in the northern tahsils where *reh* is abundant. The European industries of the city have found many imitators among native workmen, especially in the case of cotton ginning and pressing, tanning and shoemaking, and cotton or wool weaving. At one time there was a considerable exodus of carpet-makers from Mirzapur to Cawnpore; but the trade did not flourish, and the weavers now devote themselves for the most part to the manufacture of pile carpets of cotton instead of wool.

European
indus-
tries.
Leather.

The industry which first made Cawnpore famous was that connected with the tanning and currying of leather and the production of articles made therefrom. The presence of a Government arsenal and ordnance dépôt at an early date created a large demand for leather goods required for the needs of the army, and as the supply was obtained solely from the bazars, there soon sprang up a large native industry in boots, harness and accoutrements, which were exported to all parts of India. All the saddlery and the like required for the Company's forces was obtained from Cawnpore contractors, though the leather, made after the crude native process, was in many respects defective. The disorganisation of the trade caused by the Mutiny and the immense demands that then arose for boots and other articles of equipment led to the proposal to abandon the costly and wasteful system of obtaining stores from England, and in its place to obtain suitable equipment locally if by any means leather of a higher quality could be produced. In 1860 an attempt was made to induce the tanners to make leather on the so-called Madras system, and an "experimental harness dépôt" was started under the superintendence of Captain John Stewart

of the Bengal Artillery, then commissary of ordnance at Cawnpore. The undertaking proved sufficiently successful to warrant further experiments, and it was resolved in 1863 to build a Government factory in which the leather tanned by contractors, chief among whom was Ishri Prasad, could be curried and worked up under skilled English supervision. A temporary building was erected on the site of the entrenchment by the pontoon bridge, and this gave place in 1867 to an enlarged factory to which additions have constantly been made. The Government Harness and Saddlery Factory is now an immense concern, employing from 2,200 to 2,800 men, who are engaged in tanning and currying leather, and in making all the harness, saddlery and accoutrements for the entire army in India, excepting the *silladar* cavalry. The works also contain a brass and iron foundry and smithy for the production of all metal work, which was formerly purchased from local artisans. The factory remained under the management of Colonel Stewart till 1883, when he was succeeded by Colonel Baddeley, who in 1899 gave over charge to Major Forestier Walker. This Government enterprise was in some measure the parent of the equally important concern started in 1880 by Mr. (afterwards Sir) W. E. Cooper, who with Sir George Allen and others founded the firm of Cooper, Allen & Co., the proprietors of the Government Boot and Army Equipment Factory. The factory, known locally as the *Hazari Bangla*, is situated on the river bank above the permit-ghat and bazar, near the site of the old custom house, and covers a very large area. The firm in 1883 secured their first boot contract from Government, and obtained a large advance of money on the understanding that they were to build pits and carry out the manufacture of leather after the methods employed in the Government factory. It now holds the contract for the supply of boots to the whole British army in India, all the goods being submitted for inspection by Government examiners before delivery. The factory also does a very large trade with other Government departments in addition to a most flourishing private business: it affords employment to some 3,000 persons, many of whom are housed in the large range of model dwellings erected by the firm along the Bithur road near Gutaiya. Since the beginning of 1904 Messrs. Cooper, Allen & Co. have been the managing agents for the North-West Tannery Co., Ltd., a joint-stock company

which was started a few years previously and is now a flourishing concern, doing a large retail business in all manner of leather goods, particularly in saddlery, harness, bags, trunks and the like. The factory stands on the Ganges bank, occupying part of the site of the old magazine. The Wense tannery in Juhi had but a brief existence, and the buildings have been bought up and closed. There are, however, several minor concerns in the city, many of which are engaged in contract work for the larger firms, and mention should be made of the Jajmau tannery founded recently by Mr. Shewan, which does a considerable and increasing business in tanning and currying leather.

Cotton
Mills.

The first great cotton mill to be started in Cawnpore was the Elgin Mills, which stand on the river bank between the North-West Tannery and Messrs. Cooper Allen & Co.'s factory, on the site of the old European general hospital. It was founded in 1862 as the Elgin Cotton Spinning and Weaving Company, Limited, but the firm went into liquidation in 1866, when the concern was bought by Mr. Hugh Maxwell, who formed a partnership with Colonel Weller and others. The business has been reconstructed from time to time, but is still a private venture. The works cover an area of about forty acres, and the manufactures include yarn spinning for the local market and weaving. The yarn is somewhat coarse as judged by an English standard, ranging as a rule from 17 to 20 counts, though sometimes finer qualities are produced. Every description of cotton cloth is woven, notably twill lining, while the mills have also a wide reputation for tents, cotton durries and ropes. Tent-making is a very important industry in Cawnpore and is carried on by many small manufactures as well as by the large concerns. The Elgin Mills, known popularly as the *Purana Putlighar*, are practically the parent of all the other large concerns in the city. The Muir Mills Company, Limited, was founded in 1874 by Mr. Gavin Jones, formerly manager of the Elgin Mills, and has grown into a large undertaking of much the same character, with some 55,000 spindles and 1,250 looms. The ordinary capital amounts to Rs. 15,00,000, in addition to a similar sum issued in 1900 as preference shares and Rs. 2,00,000 in debentures. The Cawnpore Cotton Mills Company, Limited, was started

in 1882 by Mr. J. Harwood, an employé of the Elgin Mills, and has rapidly increased into a very large venture with about 73,000 spindles and 775 looms. The initial capital was Rs. 5,00,000, and this was increased in 1896 and again in 1905 by preference issues of nine and eight lakhs, respectively. The works are known as the *Couperganj-ka-Putlighar* from the fact that they are situated on the Couperganj road in the south of the city. They are among the biggest concerns of the kind in India, but yield the palm to the Victoria Mills Company, Limited, whose immense premises with their 95,000 spindles and 900 looms form a conspicuous feature in the landscape near the Subadar's tank. This factory was started in 1885 by Mr. Atherton West, a weaving master of the Elgin Mills, who joined a small spinning and weaving business owned by Sheo Prasad, the well known banker and trader. From a modest beginning the concern has grown rapidly, and now has a capital of twenty lakhs as well as six lakhs in preference shares issued in 1902. The trade is mainly wholesale, consisting principally in yarn and cloth for the local market, and the retail business is comparatively small. These four mills are the chief but not the only spinning and weaving establishments in the city: but the others are on a relatively small scale and hardly deserve separate mention.

The Cawnpore Woollen Mills and Army Cloth Manufacturing Company, Limited, known as the *Kambal Putlighar*, originated in 1876 as a private partnership formed by Dr. J. Condon and Messrs. Gavin Jones and Petman, but was sold to a limited liability company in 1882. The early history of the concern was somewhat chequered, but it is now a most flourishing business with a capital of nine lakhs ordinary and the same amount in preference shares issued in 1898. The products are woollen fabrics of all descriptions, Government contractors bulking largely in the transactions of the firm: the wool is obtained mainly from the Punjab and Tibet, while a certain amount is imported from Australia. The works are situated near the Bithur road, between the Victoria Mills on the west and the Muir Mills on the east, while further along the road to the west is a large block of workmen's dwellings known as McRobertganj after Mr. A. McRobert, their founder.

Woollen
Mills.

Cotton
ginning
and
pressing.

Cotton pressing and ginning are important industries in Cawnpore, and there are many firms engaged in the business. The chief is the West Patept Press Company, Limited, a London firm started in 1874 with a capital of Rs. 1,50,000. There are many branches in these provinces and the Punjab, that at Cawnpore being the head Indian office: the firm also are managing agents for the Aligarh West Ginning Company, Limited. Only pressing is done at the Couperganj works, the cotton being hydraulically compressed into bales of 404 lbs. measuring $48'' \times 19'' \times 17\frac{1}{2}''$. Other presses are those of the Hydraulic Pressing Association, a syndicate formed in 1880 and now owned by the firm of Mulchand Juggi Lal; Messrs. Beer and Sital, who also have a ginning factory of 86 double roller gins*; Baldeo Das Kedarnath, represented by Lala Mulchand, who owns a ginning factory of 84 gins; Baijnath Juggi Lal, who have a press and 50 gins; and Sri Ram Mahadeo Prasad, who have presses and 48 gins. All of these are situated in the great cotton centre of Couperganj, where, too are the ginning factories of Nihalchand Baldeo Sahai with 65 gins; Messrs. Volkart Bros., known as the Jumna Company, Limited, with 48; Narain Das Lachhman Das with 50; Har Datt Bilas Das with 30; and Amarcharan Badri Das with 40 gins. Efforts are now being made on the part of Government to establish a mill for the utilisation of cotton-seed, which at present is for the most part exported to Hull.

Messrs
Begg,
Suther-
land & Co.

A firm very closely connected with many of the industrial enterprises of Cawnpore is that of Begg, Sutherland and Co., which is the name at present given to the Cawnpore branch of the well known Calcutta House of Begg, Dunlop and Co. It was started in 1856 as Begg, Christie and Co., and shortly afterwards became Begg, Maxwell and Co., the present name having been adopted about 1875. In addition to their business as seed and produce merchants, which originated in the demand for indigo-seed from the Doab, they are interested in many other undertakings. The early traffic in indigo-seed was conducted by river, the boats on their return journey bringing up soda water and other articles of general merchandise. The firm are managing agents for the Cawnpore Sugar Works, Limited, a concern that began with a capital of six

* No longer working.

lakhs, to which four lakhs were added in 1903, while two years later ten lakhs were issued in preference shares. The refinery in Cawnpore was opened in 1894 for the manufacture of fine sugar from *gur* purchased mainly in the eastern districts and Bihar. The object aimed at is the production of pure cane sugar, made entirely by machinery and free from bone, charcoal and other decolourising agents of a nature objectionable to the most orthodox Hindu. At the works is a distillery, where plain spirit is made from *shira* and *mahua* in American coffee stills. The same firm are managing agents for the sugar factory opened in 1906 at Marhaura in Saran, and for the Champaran Sugar Company, Limited, a flourishing concern started in 1905 with a capital of six lakhs and worked on the continental central factory system. Most of the sugar is sold in Cawnpore, as also is that from the Japaha factory, belonging to the Bhikanpur indigo concern in Tirhut, for which Messrs. Begg, Sutherland and Co., are selling agents. Another managing agency is that of the Cawnpore Brush Company, Limited, which had been started in 1896 under the name of the Pioneer Brush Company with a nominal capital of one lakh, but after falling into financial difficulties was taken over by this firm in 1903, an additional issue of Rs. 50,000 in preference shares being made in 1907. The factory is situated in the Mall, and is worked throughout by electricity: expert brushmakers were brought from England to instruct the workmen, and all kinds of brushes are made, large quantities being supplied to the army. Begg, Sutherland and Co. are the managing agents for the Indian Electric Supply and Traction Company, Limited, a London concern which claims to be the first public supply company established in India outside the presidency towns. In addition to supplying power for lights and fans for public institutions and private houses and factories the company is the owner of the tramway, of which the preliminary length of three and a half miles from the East Indian Railway station to Sirsaya-ghat was opened in 1907. The use of electricity is rapidly becoming popular in Cawnpore, and already there are three electrically driven flour mills in the city. The firm also act as selling agents on behalf of the Forest department for resin made in the Naini Tal forest division, and for light railway

construction on behalf of Messrs. Orenstein and Koppel. They have recently been placed in charge of the Government experimental factory and refinery, now under erection, for expressing oil from cotton-seed.

Other
concerns.

Among other industrial enterprises mention must be made of the Empire Engineering Company, Limited, a concern started by Mr. Gavin Jones for general forge and foundry work; the chemical works belonging to Messrs. D. Waldie and Co., of Calcutta, situated near Nawabganj; the Union Indian Sugar Works, Limited, at Rawatpur; the Ganges Flour Mills Company, Limited, situated in cantonments and managed by the firm of Baldeo Das Kedarnath, who also control the Cawnpore Flour Mills Company, Limited, both being small concerns with modern roller plant; and the Sri Dwarka Dhas Jute Mills near the East Indian Railway station, owned by a syndicate which bought up the North-West Provinces Jute Mills Company, Limited, which was established by Mr. Beer in 1883 for the manufacture of sacking and floor cloth. These by no means exhaust the list of important firms in and around Cawnpore. Messrs. Frizzoni and Co., who are architects, builders and contractors, have large brick and tile works, and others are owned by Messrs. Ford and McDonald. Messrs. Allen Bros. and Co., a London and Calcutta firm, have a branch in Cawnpore acting as general agents and dealers in mill stores, piecegoods and bristles, and have recently started an experimental aloe farm at Najafgarh. Messrs. Schroder, Smidt and Co., of Bremen and Calcutta, have an agency dealing in general produce, especially cotton, hides, grain and European manufactured goods. Similarly Messrs. Ralli Bros. have an agency in Couperganj; but this and the two last mentioned firms hardly come under the category of manufacturing enterprises. Other trading firms of importance are those of Sanders, Smidt and Co., general merchants and dealers; Sanwal Das, who made a fortune in hides and has recently been succeeded by his brother, Kashi Das; Ginwalla and Dalal, Parsi hide and general dealers; Hafiz Muhammad Halim, a hide merchant; N. D. Noronha and Sons, who have a large establishment in the Mall, and many of the banking houses mentioned on a previous page.

Markets.

Besides the city of Cawnpore there are no markets of any great importance in the district. The large towns boast of

a certain amount of trade; but the volume is never great, save perhaps in the case of places on the railway such as Akbarpur, Bilhaur, Sheorajpur and Pukhrayan, which have benefited at the expense of older and less fortunately situated bazars. Bithur too has almost equal advantages; while among other markets of local note mention may be made of Barai Garhu, celebrated for its cattle fair and the *pan* crown in the village: Baripal, the centre of a considerable traffic in grain, ghi and cotton; Gajner, another cattle market; and Ghausganj, once famous for its *kharua* cloth imported from the districts of Bundelkhand. There are many other places at which markets are held twice a week as a rule, wither the people of the neighbouring villages resort to dispose of their produce and to purchase the simple requisites of rural life: and a list of all these will be found in the appendix.

Another list given in the appendix shows the principal ^{Fairs.} fairs periodically held in the district. There are many others which take place on the occasion of the regular Hindu and Musalman festivals; but in every case the attendance is very small, and the gatherings, drawn solely from a few neighbouring villages, are purely religious and possess no commercial significance. At Cawnpore itself the largest fair is that which takes place at the Ramlila, and this is wholly connected with the festival; while the same may be said of the larger assemblage in Chait, at the village of Juhi Kalan in the suburbs, in honour of Barah Devi which is attended by some 20,000 persons. Of similar size is the Kanslila fair at Chaubepur, where some traffic is done by pedlars and shopkeepers from the country round. At Chhatarpur, a village near the Ganges and some two miles from Sheorajpur, there is a very ancient and celebrated temple of Khereshwar Mahadeo at which several fairs take place, the largest being on the Sheoratri in Phagun. Another fair, called the Sheobart, is held on the same date at a still more ancient and equally revered temple of Mahadeo in the village of Banipara, in tahsil Derapur, and the assemblage is made the occasion for a good deal of local traffic. At Gajner, in pargana Akbarpur, is an old mosque built in honour of Saiyid Salar, though it is certain that the martyr prince never visited these parts and the local traditions concerning him are of the

vaguest description. Here a large gathering is held in Jeth, and a considerable amount of trade, especially in cattle, is carried on; but the fair has declined with the town, and has lost much of its former importance. The most sacred Hindu place in the district is Bithur, the scene of Brahma's horse sacrifice: and here several fairs are held during the course of the year, especially at the Dasahra, the Pus Sankrant and the full moon of Kartik. The last is far the most important and attracts some 80,000 pilgrims from all parts, though in old days the number was even greater. The attendance has declined with the commercial importance of the gathering, for the large trade of former days has been diverted elsewhere owing to the influence of the railways, although the same cause has rendered the spot much more accessible than was the case twenty years ago. None of these fairs, however, can compare with that of Makanpur, which has long possessed a provincial reputation. Originally the assemblage was Musalman in character, and was held on the anniversary of the birth of Badi-ud-din Shah Madar, of whom some account is given in the article on Makanpur. This religious gathering has given place to the great Basant fair in Magh, which was instituted shortly after the introduction of British rule. In character it is mainly commercial, constituting one of the chief horse and cattle fairs in the United Provinces. As a mart for horses the importance of the fair has declined of late, as the animals are mainly those rejected at Batesar, Nauchandi and elsewhere. Remounts are no longer obtainable, but a certain number of draught and transport horses and ponies are brought. The bullocks and camels, on the other hand, are of a superior description, and the volume of trade is very large. Special police and sanitary arrangements are undertaken by the district staff, and the cost is met by a tax on purchases, rents of booths and a proportion of the offerings made by pilgrims at the shrine. Prizes are occasionally awarded to the best animals in each class, but the competition for such distinctions is not great. The fair lasts for some twenty days and the attendance at the fullest time averages about 100,000 persons, who are attracted hither from all parts, numbers of travelling dealers coming from Oudh, Bundelkhand, the Punjab and even Bihar.

Taken as a whole the district enjoys exceptional advantages as regards means of communication, and is now covered with a net-work of roads and railways focussing on Cawnpore. Large tracts, it is true, are still dependent solely on unmetalled roads, and these are often of a very inferior description, hardly practicable for cart traffic during the rains. All the tahsil headquarters, however, are connected with Cawnpore either by railway or by metalled road, if not by both, and the only crying need is that of a permanent bridge over the Sengar near Derapur. The unmetalled roads are worst in the tahsils along the Jumna, while they are also capable of great improvement in Billhaur, Derapur and Narwal. In former days the great rivers were the chief lines of traffic, as is evidenced by the remains of ancient towns along the Jumna and Ganges. Of the internal highways the chief was the Mughal road or Badshahi Sarak, leading from Agra and Etawah through Sikandra, Zainpur, Bhognipur, Chaparghata and Ghatampur to Kora, Kara and Allahabad. Despite its name, it dates probably as far back at least as the reign of Sher Shah, whose public works were of the greatest importance. The road is fairly straight, and in the ravine country near Musanagar it is driven through a deep cutting so as to secure an easy gradient. At regular intervals *kos minars* were erected, so as to serve the double purpose of milestones and lighthouses, and fortified *sarais* were built at the various stages. Many of the former are still in existence but the latter are in ruins, though their outlines may be traced at Zainpur, and at Banda, Ghatampur, Paras and Nauranga in the Ghatampur tahsil. The walls of a large fort, built mostly of stone slabs and founded by Itimad Khan in the days of Shahjahan, encircle the village of Khwaja Phul on the Etawah border; but the chief monument on the road is the fine masonry bridge of five pointed arches over the Sengar at Chaparghata, commanded by a massive and imposing brick fort of which the walls are still standing. Unfortunately the Mughal road passes through country of which the soil is so light that it either pulverises into a fine dust or deteriorates into deep ruts; and though the greater part was raised during the famine of 1897, it requires metalting to be converted into a really useful artery of commerce.

Other old roads included that from Kanauj to Kora, passing through Makanpur Nadiha, Sapahi and Sarh, the route taken by Farrukhsiyar on his march from Khajulha to Agra in 1712; that from Kalpi to Jajman and Lucknow; and that from Akbarpur to Rasulabad, Bidhuna and Shikohabad. When the district passed into the hands of the British, the roads were not only few but absolutely neglected: to such an extent indeed that for rapid progress it was necessary to avoid the roads altogether. The duty of maintaining existing lines of communication lay nominally on the landowners, but they invariably failed to perform this part of their engagements, and it was not till the first regular settlement that a road cess was substituted for personal obligation, and a district committee formed for the maintenance of roads and ferries. Much improvement resulted from this measure, and in 1846 there were 500 miles of serviceable roads, repaired at an annual cost of Rs. 28,000, including the construction of new lines and bridges. Besides these there was the grand trunk road, begun in 1832 but not completed till several years later. The metalled road to Kalpi was finished in 1846, but no others were undertaken till after the Mutiny. Then followed the introduction of railways, which has been continued to the present day and has by no means reached its final stage, while at the same time the roads have been constantly improved and extended.

ailway.

The first line of railway to be constructed in the district was the extension of the East Indian system from Allahabad to Cawnpore, this section being opened on the 3rd of March 1859, while that from Cawnpore to Etawah was opened on the 1st of July 1861. There are stations at Karbigwan, Sirsaul, Chakeri, Cawnpore, Panki, Maitha, Rura and Jhinjhak, as well as a goods station at Cawnpore. Next comes the branch line of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, which was opened on the 23rd of April 1867, although the connection with the East Indian was not made till several years later. The bridge over the Ganges was begun in 1869, but a number of the wells collapsed during the rains of the following year and the foundations of the piers were laid afresh in 1871. It was completed in July 1875, and at the same time the continuation of the line as far as the East Indian station

was opened. The bridge is 2,850 feet in length, comprising 23 spans of 100 feet, two of 96 and two of 40 feet each, and is built of iron girders, with a clear space of 32 feet from the bottom of the girders to low water level: it has an upper and a lower roadway, the latter intended for foot passengers, horses and cattle. The cost, including the protective works, was Rs. 17,60,978. The track is laid for both broad and meter-gauge stock, so as to link up the narrow-gauge systems on either side; the stations on the railway are those of Cawnpore Bridge and Cawnpore, Oudh and Rohilkhand. From the latter a meter-gauge branch runs past the Couperganj goods-shed to Anwarganj, the terminus of the Cawnpore-Achhnera section of the Rajputana-Malwa Railway, which was constructed by Government and leased to the Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway Company on the 1st of October 1886. This line was opened as far as Kanauj on the 15th of December 1882, and runs parallel to the grand trunk road to the Farrukhabad border, with stations at Rawatpur, Kalyanpur, Mandhana, Chaubepur, Sheorajpur, Pura, Bilhaur and Araul. From Mandhana a branch, five miles in length and opened on the 10th of November 1885, goes to Bithur on the banks of the Ganges, the station being known as Brahmavart. The last line to be constructed was the branch of the Indian Midland Railway from Jhansi to Cawnpore, which was transferred to the Great Indian Peninsula Railway Company on the 21st of December 1900. The portion from Cawnpore to Chaunra, on the banks of the Jumna, was opened on the 1st of April 1886 and that from Chaunra to Jhansi on the 1st of February 1888, when the bridge over the Jumna was completed. This great structure is 2,626 feet in length, and comprises ten spans of 250 feet each with a space of 77 feet clear between the girders and low water: the total cost, including that of the protective works, was Rs. 25,66,637. The piers and abutments are designed for a double track, but at present there is but one line of rails with a roadway running alongside on the same level. There are stations at Chaunra, Pukhrayan, Malasa, Lalpur, Paman and Bhimsen, while at Cawnpore the line makes use of the East Indian Railway and Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway stations having running powers over the latter railway as far as Lucknow. There is a goods-shed adjoining

that of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway close to the latter's station. No other railway is actually contemplated at present, but proposals have been put forward for the construction of a line from Cawnpore to Hamirpur and Banda along the course of the metalled road.

Roads :
provin-
cial.

The roads of the district are either provincial, being maintained by the Public Works department, or local, the latter being under the control of the district board. In addition there is a number of municipal and cantonment roads at Cawnpore, those kept up at the cost of the cantonment committee having an aggregate length of 8·6 miles. The provincial roads are all metalled, and comprise three main roads and several small branches. The chief is the grand trunk road, which enters the district at the masonry bridge over the Pandu in mile 106 from Allahabad and follows the course of the Ganges, passing through Cawnpore, Sheorajpur and Bilhaur and entering the Farrukhabad district in mile 171. It is carried over the Non by a bridge of masonry and iron girders, and over the Isan by a combined road and railway bridge in mile 164. There were formerly staging bungalows at intervals along the road, but these have been converted into inspection houses and are located at Maharajpur, Juhi, Mandhana, Sheorajpur and Bilhaur. Military encamping grounds are maintained at Maharajpur, Kalyanpur, Chaubepur, Pura, Bilhaur and Araul, and with the exception of Bilhaur each has a store dépôt attached to it. The only provincial branch from this road is the short line connecting it with the Chakeri railway station. The second trunk road is that from Cawnpore to Jhansi and Saugor, which starts from the cross-roads near the collector's bungalow and Sirsaya ghat, on the Ganges, and runs in a south-westerly direction through Sachendi, Barah and Pukhrayan to the banks of the Jumna opposite Kalpi, the river being crossed by a pontoon bridge maintained by the Jalaun authorities. The total length is nearly 46 miles, exclusive of the railway feeder roads to the Panki, Lalpur and Pukhrayan stations. There are masonry bridges over the Pandu and Rind rivers, and iron girder bridges over the Sengar at Muhammadpur. Inspection houses are maintained at Bhaunti, Barah and Dig, while the encamping grounds and store dépôts are at Sachendi, Barah, Dig and Bhognipur. Lastly, there is the trunk road

from Cawnpore to Hamirpur, Mahoba and Saugor, starting from the south entrance of the cutcherry compound and running through Ghatampur to Rampur on the Jumna, that river being crossed by a bridge-of-boats maintained by the Hamirpur district. The road is carried over the Pandu and the Non by masonry bridges, and over the Rind by a structure of iron girders at Simbhua. There are inspection bungalows at Bidhnu and at Dohru on the Non, while the encamping grounds and store dépôts are at Bidhnu and Ghatampur. A regular service of *dak-garis* is maintained between Cawnpore and Hamirpur, a distance of 39 miles.

The local roads fall into several classes, officially designated as first-class metalled roads; second-class unmetalled roads, these being subdivided according as they are wholly or partially bridged and drained; fifth-class roads, cleared, partially bridged and drained; and sixth-class roads, cleared only, these last being little better than mere cart tracks. In all cases the cost of maintenance is borne by the district board, but the repairs to the metalled roads and to the bridges and culverts on other roads are undertaken by the Public Works department. A list of all the roads in the district will be found in the appendix, and including the provincial roads they have a total aggregate length of 1,014 miles, of which 610 miles belong to the fifth and sixth classes. The local metalled roads are 58 miles in length, and among the most important lines of the branch from the grand trunk road through Cawnpore, that from Kalyanpur to Bithur, the road from Bara to Akbarpur and Rura and the continuation from Rura to Derapur. Another of some importance is the metalled road from Maharajpur to Sirsaul station and Narwal, connecting that tahsil with the railway and the grand trunk road. No enumeration of the unmetalled roads is necessary, as their position can be seen on the map. The chief is the old Mughal road, already described, and this is the only one on which encamping grounds are maintained, these being at Sikandra, Shahjahanpur, Ghausganj and Thanwapur. Other lines of importance are those from Ghatampur to Gajner, Akbarpur, Derapur, Mangalpur and Etawah; from Bidhuna in the Etawah district to Rasulabad, Sheoli and Bithur; from Sheoli to Sachendi, Sarh and Kora; from

Ghatampur to Sarh and Salempur; from Sheorajpur to Sheoli and Rura; and from Nanamau ferry on the Ganges to Bilhaur, Kakwan, Rasulabad, Mangalpur, Sikandra and Bijamau ferry on the Jumna, a distance of 50 miles. All these roads are capable of great improvement, especially in the matter of raising and draining so as to render them passable during the rains, while bridges are greatly needed in many places, the Rind and Sengar particularly constituting a great obstacle to cross-country traffic. Apart from the regular roads there are innumerable tracks connecting villages with each other, but as a rule they are totally neglected and the passage of carts is attended with great difficulty, owing to encroachments on the part of cultivators and the obstructions caused by the net-work of canal distributaries. The Irrigation department has erected numerous bridges over the principal distributaries, but the minors are just as effective in stopping the passage of wheeled traffic as the main canal itself. At the same time the paths along the banks of the canal are of considerable value, though they are not intended for heavy work. Inspection bungalows on local roads are maintained at Bithur, Narwal and Derapur, and also at Salempur Mahera on the Rind, between Jhinjhak and Rasulabad.

Ferries.

Another list in the appendix shows all the ferries in the district, as well as those giving access to the country of Oudh beyond the Ganges and of Bundelkhand beyond the Jumna. There are 13 ferries over the Ganges, all maintained by the Cawnpore district board and leased annually to contractors, the most important being Permit-ghat at Cawnpore and those of Bithur, Nanamau, Sarai Gang and Ankin. Prior to the construction of the railway bridge at Cawnpore there was a pontoon bridge across the river, but in 1875 this was removed to Kalpi on the Jumna, there taking the place of the old bridge-of-boats. The crossing of the Jumna at Hamirpur is effected by a bridge-of-boats, replaced during the rains by a ferry and managed from Hamirpur. Besides this there are 18 ferries over the Jumna, of which that at Khartala alone belongs to the Cawnpore district board; while twelve are worked by the Jalaun authorities, two by the Hamirpur district board and the remaining three, leading to the Baoni estate, are the property of private *zamindars*. All other

ferries are leased by the district board of Cawnpore and comprise ten over the Pandu, five on the Rind, three on the Sengar, two on the Isan, two on the southern Non and one at Ramel over the northern Non near Bithur. With the exception of the last and the Pachmahla ferry over the Isan near Bilhaur, these ferries are of little value, although there is a good deal of traffic across the Pandu at Sichauli and Mahrauli in the Narwal tahsil and over the Sengar at Derapur. During the Makanpur fair a temporary bridge-of-boats is constructed over the Isan. The net average income on account of ferries credited to the Cawnpore district board during the five years ending in 1906-07 was Rs. 14,515 annually.* The figure is much lower than was formerly the case, owing to the improvement in other means of communication, the total income in 1876-77 being Rs. 21,526. This amount was credited to the local road and ferry fund and was administered by the magistrate of the district, the transfer of the income to the district board not taking place till 1901.

In early days the Ganges and the Jumna formed the main ^{Naviga-} trade routes and the river traffic was of the greatest importance. In 1845 the two rivers were described as navigable for boats of large tonnage throughout the year, but this is no longer the case owing to the diminution in the volume of the water as the result of the demands on the rivers for the supply of irrigation canals. There is still a certain amount of river traffic, especially on the Ganges, but the rivers have been much affected by the competition created by both metalled roads and railways. The existence of a large river-borne trade lent encouragement to the scheme for constructing a navigable channel along the Ganges canal, and was responsible for the costly terminal works at Cawnpore. The undertaking, however, proved a failure, for the passage of boats from the canal into the river or from the river into the canal was an event of the rarest occurrence, and has long become impossible owing to the fact that the channel is now covered over for a considerable distance. For many years the canal was extensively utilized, but lately the amount of traffic has exhibited a marked decline. Imports into Cawnpore by the canal consist chiefly of firewood, hides, cotton, *gur*, flour and

* Appendix, table XV.

bamboos, and are brought in small quantities from such distant places as Meerut, Bhola, Narora, Masuri in Bulandshahr and Nanau in Aligarh. The barges for the most part return empty : there is little local traffic, save in the matter of bones, rags and small quantities of grain, while firewood is brought to the city from Kakwan, Taktauli and a few other villages.

CHAPTER III.

THE PEOPLE.

Although the external boundaries of the district have remained intact since the separation of Fatehpur in 1825, the extensive internal changes that have taken place in the matter of the tahsil arrangement, especially in 1860 and 1894, render it impossible to establish a satisfactory comparison of the results obtained at successive enumerations in the various tracts. In the census report of 1853 figures are given for no fewer than twelve parganas, and the total, which in 1860 became nine by amalgamation or distribution, was subsequently reduced to eight by a similar process in 1894. Consequently of the existing subdivisions of Bilhaur, Bhognipur and Derapur no longer represent the same areas as at the time of the 1891 census and previous enumerations, and it is therefore necessary to bear in mind that former statistics of these parganas refer to them as they were prior to the reconstitution of their areas. For the purposes of convenience the figures of 1891 have been adjusted to the present areas; but it is impossible to do the same for earlier years, since the statistics of individual villages have not been preserved.

The first authoritative census was taken by Mr. Montgomery in 1847, and this gave, after revision, a total population of 993,031 persons in the whole district, the density averaging nearly 417 per square mile of the present area. The figure was highest in the Jajman pargana, which represents the greater part of the modern Cawnpore tahsil, and next in order came Sheorajpur, Bilhaur and Narwal, while at the other end of the scale stood Sikandra, now included in Derapur, with only 280 to the square mile. This census was held to be fairly accurate, although little was attempted beyond a mere enumeration: the people were classified as "Hindus and others," the former aggregating 917,287, and as "agriculturists or otherwise employed," the number of persons directly dependent on cultivation being 583,460.

Besides Cawnpore itself the towns possessing more than 5,000 inhabitants were Bithur, Akbarpur, Sachendi, Biposi, Bilhaur, Rasdhan and Jeora Nawabganj.

Census of
1853.

This census had taken place at a time when the district had not yet recovered from the effects of the great famine in 1837, and it was only to be expected that a rapid increase in the population would ensue within a short period. Such proved to be the case in 1853, when the census, conducted by Mr. Greathed, showed a total of 174,556 inhabitants, involving a rise of 18·26 per cent. in the space of five years. The increase was common to all parganas, and the relative position was almost unchanged. The general average density was 493 to the square mile, this figure exceeding 500 in all the parganas bordering on the Ganges, while in those along the Jumna it was nowhere less than 350. At the same time the results of later enumerations and the slow rate of increase that has occurred in the subsequent period afford strong reasons for doubting the accuracy of the earlier census, and almost inevitably point to an understatement in 1847. On this occasion too the census was a more elaborate affair, though the data collected were meagre as compared with later standards. Of the whole number 1,085,132 were Hindus and 89,424 Musalmans and others, while the agricultural community aggregated 698,006 persons. The number of towns with more than 5,000 inhabitants remained the same as before, but Biposi and Rasdhan were replaced by Sheoli and Ramel or Lashkar Bithur.

Census of
1865.

The third census took place in 1865, and it was then found that the population had again increased, in spite of the disturbing effects of the Mutiny and the subsequent famine of 1860-61. The enumeration, which was far more comprehensive in its scope than its predecessor, since it took into consideration caste and occupation, showed a total of 1,192,836 inhabitants, giving an average density of 500 to the square mile. The rate was 1,006 in the Cawnpore tahsil, 560 in Sheorajpur, 530 in Bilhaur and 498 in Narwal, while elsewhere it was well below the average, Akbarpur and Rasulabad having 423 and 429 to the square mile respectively, Derapur 380, Ghatampur 368 and Bhognipur 365. The only pargana showing a decrease was Narwal, and the greatest

increase was recorded in Rasulabad. The list of towns with more than 5,000 inhabitants had undergone some change, and now comprised Cawnpore, Bithur, Akbarpur, Bilhaur, Sachendi and Kashipur. The district contained in all 2,017 villages, apart from the places mentioned, and of these 1,750 possessed a population of less than one thousand, 208 others less than 2,000 and 59 between 2,000 and 5,000.

The census that was taken in 1872 was by general consent more accurate than any of the previous attempts. It showed a marked decline in the total for which it is difficult to account, as the preceding seven years had been a period of fair prosperity and the district had escaped the famine of 1869. It appears, however, that there had been a considerable amount of emigration, as was also the case in Fatchpur; but a more probable cause lies in the greater accuracy of the enumeration, since on former occasions there had been a decided tendency to register the same persons twice over. The population on this occasion numbered 156,055 souls, giving an average density of 485 to the square mile. The rate was 944 in the Cawnpore tahsil, 520 in Bilhaur and 514 in Sheorajpur, while in Narwal it was no more than 455: it had dropped to 412 in Akbarpur and to 362 in Ghatampur, but in Rasulabad, Derapur and Bhognipur it had risen to 434, 384 and 370, respectively. It will thus be observed that, whereas the northern parganas showed a general and pronounced decline, the population had advanced at a normal rate in the thinly populated tracts along the Jumna; so that the loss was confined to those parts in which the density was sufficiently great to induce migration. At this census the district contained 1,985 towns and villages, of which 1,736 possessed under 1,000 inhabitants, 191 between 1,000 and 2,000, while among the rest only Cawnpore and Bilhaur had over 5,000 residents, the decline of the towns being one of the most remarkable features of the census.

The ensuing period was characterised by several indifferent seasons and one very severe famine, the effects of the latter being most strongly felt in the south-eastern parganas. In the remainder of the district the recovery was complete, and the growth of the population in the Gangetic tract was wonderfully rapid. Although the total had not yet regained

the level of 1865, it must be borne in mind that a far more accurate enumeration was obtained in 1881, and in all probability the district had never contained a larger number of inhabitants. The aggregate on this occasion was 1,181,396 and the resultant density 496 to the square mile, calculated on the present area. The Cawnpore tahsil showed an average of 1,022, Sheorajpur of 546 and Bilhaur of 543. Next came Narwal with 467, Rasulabad with 450, Akbarpur with 448 and Derapur with 387, while in Ghatampur and Bhognipur the respective figures were only 334 and 313, the latter having declined in an extraordinary manner. The number of towns and villages was now 1,970, and of these 1,709 had less than 1,000 inhabitants apiece, 200 between 1,000 and 2,000, while of the remaining 61 Cawnpore itself, Bithur, Bilhaur and Akbarpur had populations exceeding 5,000.

Census of
1891.

The following decade was one of fair general prosperity, and a rapid increase of the population was only to be expected at the census of 1891. The total rose to 1,209,695, the average density being 507 to the square mile. At the same time the rise was very uneven. The city had grown with marvellous rapidity, the headquarters tahsil now showing an average of 1,147; and the recovery had been almost complete in Ghatampur and Bhognipur, the respective figures being 346 and 344. Apart from these, however, the rural parganas showed an appreciable decline, ranging from three to five per cent. except Bilhaur, where the loss was insignificant. The rate of density was now 541 in Bilhaur, 535 in Sheorajpur, 453 in Narwal, 438 in Rasulabad, 418 in Akbarpur and 380 in Derapur. The decrease was by no means peculiar to this district, for the same phenomenon was observed throughout the middle Doab. Various reasons are assigned for it, such as the deterioration caused by a series of years with abundant rainfall, the spread of kans grass and the loss occasioned by the destruction of the Nadrai aqueduct, which cut off the canal supply from a large area. Probably all these had some influence, though it is more natural to suppose that the prevailing cause was the unhealthiness of the period, which was marked by recurring epidemics of fever and undermined the vitality of the people. The number of towns and villages in 1891 was 1,976, and of these only Cawnpore, Bilhaur and

Bithur had over 5,000 inhabitants; 1,730 contained less than one thousand, 193 from 1,000 to 2,000 and 50 from 2,000 to 5,000 souls apiece.

The ten years terminating in 1901 began with a succession of abnormally wet seasons which had a pernicious effect on the agriculture and general health of the district, and then followed the famine of 1896-97 which caused acute distress for a few months, though the rise in prices gave a much-needed stimulus to agriculture and ultimately little harm was done. With the restoration of normal conditions the recovery was complete and rapid, so that Cawnpore afterwards attained a degree of prosperity that had never before been experienced. The population at the census numbered 1,258,868 souls, the density rising to 528 to the square mile. This figure is higher than that observed in other parts of the Allahabad division, though lower than the average for Farrukhabad. It is in large measure influenced by the presence of the city, for, if the population of Cawnpore be excluded, the density drops to 459 only: taking the whole number of inhabitants, the Cawnpore tahsil shows a density of 1,196, while besides this Sheorajpur alone exceeds the general average with a rate of 536. As at the previous census, the increase was not common to the whole area. It was most noticeable in the parganas along the Jumna, the density rising from 328 to 384 in Bhognipur and from 455 to 486 in Derapur, the former figure in either case being for the tahsil as reconstituted in 1894, while in Ghatampur it was now 366 and in Akbarpur 440. On the other hand Bilhaur showed a decline, the rate being 453 as compared with 457, and in Narwal the population had fallen off to a marked extent, the average being only 426 to the square mile or very much less than in 1853.

It is difficult to estimate the effect of migration on the population owing to the insufficiency of data: and unfortunately it is not possible in this connection to distinguish between the city and the rest of the district. The factories of Cawnpore attract labourers from all the surrounding country, so that migration is always going on to some extent, the rate depending on the state of the market. The same fact accounts for a distinct tendency towards migration from the villages to the town, and it has been already observed

that on some occasions the city population has increased while that of the rural tracts was declining. At the last census it was found that of all the persons enumerated in the Cawnpore district 85·73 per cent. were natives, 7·88 came from contiguous districts and 6·22 per cent. from other parts of India, the remainder having their birth-place in Europe or elsewhere. The proportion of immigrants from other parts of India is unusually high and is exceeded only in Dehra Dun, where the conditions are peculiar; and they are drawn principally from the Punjab and the territories of Rajputana and Central India. The figures are, however, small in comparison with the influx of people from the neighbouring districts, particularly Fatehpur, Unao, Farrukhabad, Etawah, Jalaun and Hamirpur. On the other hand the addition to the population arising from this cause does not appear to have accounted in any great degree for the increase in the total; for it is not possible to ascertain how many of these immigrants came in the ten years that had elapsed since the last census, while the total in 1891 was very nearly as large. A similar difficulty is encountered in dealing with emigration. Of all the persons enumerated in India who gave Cawnpore as the district of their birth, 89·55 per cent. were found in this district and 10·45 per cent. elsewhere. This reduces the net gain on account of immigration to 100,308 persons, and it is impossible to say in what proportion this gain contributed to the actual increase of 49,173 souls. The recorded excess of births over deaths in the district during the same period was 40,640, and there was very little emigration to foreign parts; so that the only conclusion is that on the one hand the registration of deaths was imperfect, and that on the other hand the addition on the score of immigration was largely counterbalanced by the return of former immigrants to their homes.

Towns
and
villages.

For census purposes the urban population comprises the residents of Cawnpore and the small towns of Bithur, Billaur, Akbarpur, Narwal and Musanagar, though of these only the first two contain more than 5,000 inhabitants and the rest are little more than large villages. Nevertheless the size of Cawnpore is sufficient to bring up the urban population to 17·5 per cent. of the whole, a proportion which is exceeded in few districts of equal area: and even this figure fails to give an

adequate impression of the influence of the city on the district. The total numbers of town and villages in 1901 was 1,968, and of these 1,703 had less than 1,000 inhabitants apiece, the average population being 364 per village: 211 had between 1,000 and 2,000 and 54 contained a larger number. As a rule the villages are much the same in size and appearance as those in the adjoining tracts of the Doab. Since the introduction of British rule there has been a constant tendency towards the formation of hamlets and detached sites, which enable the cultivators to reside nearer to their fields; but in former days practically all the villages consisted of clusters of huts round the fort of the *zamindar*. Many such sites are still to be seen, though in most cases they are now much reduced in size, and they bear eloquent testimony to the insecurity of the past and the means by which the local chieftains preserved almost complete independence.

In the numerical relation of the sexes to one another Sex. Cawnpore resembles the Agra division rather than the districts to the south and east. In the adjoining tracts of Fatehpur, Unao and Hamirpur the number of males and females is approximately equal; but here we find the same preponderance of males that characterises the west parts of the United Provinces. The remarkable feature in the case of this district is that the proportion of females to the total population has remained practically unchanged during the past fifty years: whereas in most parts the number of females has exhibited a gradual but constant tendency to increase, the phenomenon being explained by the theory that at each enumeration the suspected custom of concealing females, whether on account of fear or for any other cause, has become less prevalent by habituation. In Cawnpore the reverse has actually taken place. On six occasions has a census been made since 1853, and the average proportion of females to the total population has been 46·6 per cent. This was exceeded with 47·04 in 1853 and with 46·76 per cent. in 1881, and at all the other enumerations the figure was between 46·4 and 46·5 per cent. In 1901 the number of males was 673,932 and of females 584,936: a marked disproportion between the sexes occurs in all the tahsils, though the local variations are considerable. As is only to be expected, the ratio is highest in the parts

adjoining the Fatehpur district, being as much as 48·4 per cent. in Narwal and 47·9 in Ghatampur: next come Bhognipur with 47·3, Sheorajpur with 47·1 and Derapur with 46·6, the other parganas being below the general average, Billhaur having 46·4, Akbarpur 46·3 and Cawnpore no more than 45·3 per cent. of females. The low figure in the last case is but natural, in view of the large industrial population of the city and the presence of a military cantonment. The reason for the preponderance of males is still a matter of pure speculation. No doubt in the past the practice of female infanticide was terribly prevalent; but were this the determining factor the result of its disappearance would have been evident by this time. Moreover, the theory cannot hold good when the minority of females is even greater among Musalmans than with the Hindus, the proportion being only 46·3 per cent. of the entire Muhammadan population; and at the same time even the Rajputs, who were always the chief offenders in this respect, number more than 46 per cent. of females. The question is one which concerns the provinces as a whole rather than any particular district; for, whatever the cause, there is as equally marked an excess of males in the western as there is a defect in the eastern tracts.

Religion.

Of the whole population as enumerated at the last census 1,140,628 were Hindus, 112,139 Musalmans, 4,414 Christians, 977 Aryas, 588 Jains and 68 Sikhs, while 53 Parsis with one Jew made up the remainder. There has been some increase of late years on the part of the minor religions, but Hindus still constitute 90·61 and Musalmans 8·91 per cent. of the inhabitants. As is the case in so many districts, the latter exhibit a constant tendency to increase at a more rapid rate than their Hindu neighbours, the reason apparently being that the adoption of a more liberal diet results in greater fertility and longer life, while it is also probable that the Musalman community includes a smaller proportion of the very poor than is to be found among the Hindus. In 1847 Musalmans comprised 7·62 per cent. of the total population, and the ratio was the same in 1853: at the next census it had dropped to 7·53; but since that date the increase has been constant, the figure rising to 7·71

in 1872 to 7·88 in 1881, and to 8·39 ten years later. As the increase is common to the province as a whole, it is presumably due to natural causes. But it appears that there has been a great influx of Muhammadan weavers into Cawnpore, attracted by the employment offered by the mills. In the Cawnpore tahsil the Musalman element forms 16·64 per cent. of the population, whereas no other tahsil exhibits a proportion equal to the general average. The highest percentage is 8·72 on Bhognipur, followed by 8·01 in Bilhaur, 7·64 in Akbarpur and 5·34 in Derapur. Elsewhere the figure is even lower, being 4·6 in Ghatampur, 4·21 in Sheorajpur and only 4·02 in the Narwal tahsil.

The complements of these percentages show the relative Hindus. predominance of the Hindus in the different parts of the district. The Hindu religion in Cawnpore presents no peculiar features: nor is it the seat of any particular form of worship, unless perhaps an exception be made in favour of the cult of Brahma at Bithur, the scene of a horse-sacrifice by that deity. The attempt made at the last census to ascertain the extent to which the Hindus show any preference for any individual sect or formula proved very unsatisfactory. Barely one-eighth of the Hindu community returned any special denomination, and it would seem that, in place of any tendency towards eclecticism in matters of religion, there is an aversion to disown the worship of any member of the pantheon. The caste distribution, on the other hand, is very strictly defined. According to the census returns, the Hindu population comprised representatives of no fewer than 84 different castes, apart from subdivisions, while in the case of 227 persons no caste was specified. Many of these are, it is true, of little importance, for in 31 instances the number of persons did not exceed 500 and in 25 the total was less than 100. On the other hand nearly 80 per cent. of the total is included in 13 castes with more than 20,000 members apiece, while nine more contribute an additional 11·68 per cent., the number of persons in each case exceeding 10,000. These 22 castes practically represent the population of the district, though one or two others deserve passing mention either for their occurrence in unusual numbers or else for their comparative rarity in any part of the United Provinces.

Brah-
mans.

First and foremost come Brahmans, who are unusually numerous and aggregated 171,569 persons or 15·04 per cent. of the whole Hindu population. They are strongest in the Cawnpore and Sheorajpur tahsils, and also form the predominant caste in Derapur, Ghatampur and Narwal, while elsewhere they are among the first four castes. The Brahmans are now the chief landowning caste in the district, and as a whole they are principally engaged in agriculture, though they are not husbandmen of a high order, depending largely on hired labour. Many of them are possessed of considerable wealth, as in this district they frequently take the place of the Bania money-lenders of other parts. The vast majority are of the Kanaujia subdivision, which is but natural, and many of the Kanaujia colonies of Etawah, Farrukhabad and other districts trace their origin to Cawnpore. There are fair numbers of Gauris and a few Sanadhs, Saraswatis, Sarwaris and others, including the Maharashtra settlement at Bithur, which is of comparatively recent origin. In all parts of the district the Brahmans have increased their landed possessions, and there are many well known families. Some of the oldest settlements are those of the Pandes in the Bhognipur tahsil, the Dikhits near Derapur and three Tiwari families in the old Sikandra pargana. Mention should also be made of the Dube Chaudhris of Bithur, the Tiwari Chaudhris of Tirma and the Chaube Chaudhris of Majhawan, the title in each case dating from Mughal times. Other prominent Brahmans are the Tiwaris of Khamaila, of Kulgaon in Narwal and those of Old Cawnpore, the Misras of Hatka and the Dubes and Chaubes of the Sheorajpur tahsil. In Narwal there is a clan known as Jaganbansi, which formerly held all the land along the Rind and also extended into Ghatampur, there occupying Akbarpur-Birbal and other villages. They have lately fallen from their high estate, but at one time were possessed of great wealth. The story goes that one Jagan Prasad, the son of a wealthy Kanaujia Brahman of Jahanabad, near Kora, was attached to the imperial commissariat, and in that capacity acquired such influence that he was enabled to enlist the aid of imperial troops in enforcing a bond held against the Gautams. In gratitude for this he supplied the entire army with food without payment during an expedition in the Doab. Hearing

of this unusual proceeding, Akbar invested him with the title of Chaudhri of pargana Kora, directing him to expel the Arakhs and authorising him to assume the appellation of Singh, which the Jaganbansis still adopt in addition to several other marks and customs peculiar to Rajputs. His descendants held a large estate in this district and Fatehpur, but most of them are now in reduced circumstances.

The Chamars take the second place, numbering 153,957 ^{Chamars.} souls or 13·5 per cent. of the Hindus. They are fairly evenly distributed throughout the district but are comparatively few in the Narwal tahsil, while in Bilhaur they are stronger than any other caste. They constitute the bulk of the labouring population, both in the fields and elsewhere, and are extensively employed by Brahman and Rajput cultivators. Formerly their position was that of mere serfs dependent on the meagre allowance of grain provided by their masters, but of late years their condition has immensely improved. The demand for general labour received its first impetus from the construction of canals and the extension of irrigation; and this was followed by large railway undertakings and the surprising commercial development of Cawnpore. At the present time the Chamars are generally in easy circumstances, as they can earn excellent wages in the mills and factories; and that they are well off is evident from the state of the labour market, and from the fact that they can support themselves adequately by working about two days a week. Their idle and unambitious character not only debars them from the accumulation of wealth but is a great drawback in the eyes of their employers.

The Ahirs, who numbered 122,380 or 10·73 per cent. ^{Ahirs.} of the Hindu community, are found everywhere in strength, but especially in Akbarpur, Bhognipur and Narwal, in the first of these predominating over all other castes. Graziers by tradition, they are generally found on the outskirts of the jungle and in the ravine country; and the fact that they have a large command of manure enables them to pay higher rents and raise better crops than their style of husbandry, which is broad and careless, would lead one to expect. The Ahir is still the cowherd of the village, receiving customary dues for each animal taken out to pasture; and in the hot weather

and rains large numbers are conducted by them to the ravines of the Jumna. A fair amount of land is owned by Ahir communities, principally in the Derapur and Bhognipur tahsils and in the south of Akbarpur along the Sengar. In most cases the settlements are of ancient date, and it would appear that they were left in undisturbed possession of the ravine country by the Rajput immigrants. There are many sub-divisions of Ahirs, but the chief in this district, as in Farrukhabad and Etawah, is the Ghosi, while others of importance are the Dhindhor, Darswar and Sakarwar.

Rajputs.

Historically the Rajputs or Thakurs are by far the most important caste in the district, and though they have lost most of their ancestral estates they still take a high place among the landowners, and their influence is unsurpassed by that of any other caste. They are relatively very numerous in Cawnpore, aggregating 94,805 souls at the last census or 8·31 per cent. of the Hindu population. They are found in strength throughout the district but are less prominent in Bhognipur and Ghatampur than elsewhere, and they occur in greatest numbers in the neighbourhood of the old headquarters of the various clans, notably in the Sheorajpur, Derapur, Cawnpore and Narwal tahsils. As a caste the Rajputs are mainly agriculturists by occupation, although fair numbers still go abroad in military and other service. Though as a race they are a fine body of men, sturdy, independent and dignified, as cultivators they are generally of inferior skill and capacity, being too proud as a rule to do manual labour in the fields, and too careless or indifferent to obtain the best results from their lands. As proprietors they have lost much through mismanagement and extravagance, though there are several exceptions, and in a few instances they have made money by banking. The real interest of the Rajputs, however, lies not so much in the caste as in the component septs or clans, with the annals of whom is inseparably bound up the internal history of the district. These clans are extremely numerous, but only a comparatively small number are of any great importance.

Rajput clans.

The strongest clan is that of the Gaurs, numbering 14,532 souls, of whom 9,429 were found in the Derapur tahsil: the rest are distributed throughout the district, but especially in

Sheorajpur, Bilhaur and Akbarpur. The Chauhans, 10,544 belong principally to Akbarpur, Cawnpore, Bhognipur and Sheorajpur. The chief seat of the Chandels, 10,278, is in Sheorajpur and Cawnpore, though fair numbers occur in Akbarpur and elsewhere. Next come the Kachhwahas, 8,012, mainly in the western tahsils; the Bais, 7,200, for the most part in Narwal and Cawnpore; the Sengars, 5,312, being fairly evenly distributed, though most numerous in Derapur and Akbarpur; the Gautams, 4,902, in Narwal and Cawnpore; the Bhadaurias, 3,739, in Cawnpore and elsewhere; the Panwars, 3,922, chiefly in Ghatampur and Bhognipur; the Parihars, 3,377, in all tahsils but particularly Cawnpore and Akbarpur; the Rathors, 3,370, who are similarly scattered, though the largest number is to be found in Bhognipur; and the Gahlots, 2,095, two-thirds residing in Bilhaur. Other clans with more than a thousand representatives are Gaharwars, Dikhits, Sombansis, Jadons and Tomars, while Janwars, Raikwars, Jaiswars and Raghubansis also occur in fair numbers.

The Gaurs trace their origin either to Garh Gajni or Garhganjana, near Indore, or to Narkanjari in Central India, or again to Narnol. Those in this district are of the subdivision known as Chamar Gaur: and the story goes that their leader, Prithvi Deo, married a daughter of Jai Chand of Kanauj, receiving Kalpi and Kara as dowry; and that he then carried off the daughter of the Meo Raja of Kasru Khara or Rahaniapur in Akbarpur. The Meos in revenge treacherously murdered him and his followers, but the Ranis escaped, the Meo taking refuge with a Brahman, whence her offspring are styled Bahman Gaurs, while the Rathorin fled to a Chamar's hut, and there gave birth to Pathar Deo, the first of the Chamar Gaurs. This man set to work to extirpate the Meos, whose territory he divided among his seven sons. The eldest, Bhatak Deo, settled at Makrandpur, receiving 42 villages, which were afterwards split up into four estates known as Makrandpur Kainjri, Malkanpurwa, subsequently merged in the former, Samaun and Itaili. The second son, Dundan Deo, made Banipara his headquarters, and his 24 villages were partitioned between his two sons. The third son was Bachhraj, who also received 24 villages of which the chief was Nar: he assumed the title of Raja and extended his

possession over 56 villages, which were subsequently, however, distributed among younger branches of the family, so that in 1801 only 22 remained to the Raja and many of these were soon after sold for arrears. Raja Dariao Singh joined the rebels, his property was confiscated and he himself was hanged: but his younger brother was allowed to retain a half share in four villages. The dependent estates given to younger members of the family were those of Salempur Mahera, thirteen villages, held with the title of Rao, but Bishnath Singh, who now holds the title, has practically nothing left; Malgaon, six villages, also held with the same title, though the present Rao, Pitam Singh, has lost all his land; Gajen, of eight villages; Rasulpur Rawatgaon of four villages; the Kashipur *taluka*; and Aikaru, given with eleven villages to Horel Deo, fourth in descent from Bachhraj, but now lost to his descendants. The fourth son of Pathar Deo was Bajan Deo, who settled at Nariha in Akbarpur: the estate was seized by Khalil Khan of Barah but restored by the special commission, though the Gaurs now hold but a portion of their ancestral property. The fifth son was Rasik Deo who went to Jhinjhak, where he gained possession of 24 villages. His eldest son, Bibdeo, took the title of Rana and settled in Ban, whence his descendants moved first to Surasi and then to Mangalpur. From this stock come the houses of Khanpur Dilwal and Jalihapur, the most flourishing of all the Gaur families. Rasik Deo's second son, Asis Deo, was the ancestor of the Chaudhris of Ghatampur; and the third son, Bhao Singh, became Rawat of Bhindemau with twelve villages, all of which have passed from the hands of his descendants. The sixth son of Pathar Deo was Bular Singh, who obtained the Gahlon estate of 24 villages which has since been sold; and the seventh son was Roshan Deo, whose portion was Barhapur in Akbarpur: but this too was transferred to Banias, though subsequently repurchased by a member of the old family.

Chandels.

The early history of the Chandels is very obscure, but their advent to this district is generally attributed to the three sons of one Dham Deo, who came from Kanauj apparently at the beginning of the fourteenth century. Their first settlement was at Radhan, where are the remains of a large fort. The eldest son, Sheoraj Deo, founded Sheorajpur

and was the ancestor of a famous line of powerful Rajas. His descendant, Ram Chandra, obtained a *sanad* from Akbar confirming him in the possession of 95 villages, and his son, Jagatman, received similar recognition from Jahangir. Then followed Sabal Singh, Indarjit, Zorawar Singh, Mandhata and Hindupat, who ruled from 1715 to 1757 and was given *sanads* by Muhammad Shah and the Maratha governors. Next came Risal Singh, who died in 1780; Sheo Singh, who engaged for the estate at annexation; Mahendra Singh, who held the title from 1806 to 1824; his uncle, Dan Singh, who died in 1832; and Sati Prasad, the rebel who died in prison in 1858, when the entire property was confiscated. A younger branch of the Sheorajpur family is that of the Rawats of Onha, once a property of 36 villages, reduced to ten by Almas Ali Khan, and subsequently to six, now held in part by the widow of Rawat Sheodarshan Singh. The second son of Dham Deo was Pat Deo, who founded Pachor, and from this branch came the Ranas of Sakrej, a line which is practically extinct. The third son was Rao Lag Deo, who founded Sapahi, which is still held by his descendant, Rao Dharamraj Singh, though most of the estate has passed to younger branches represented by Kali Singh of Kiratpur and others. An offshoot of Sapahi at an early date was Rawatpur, which originally consisted of 48 villages. This property, or rather such as was left after the separation of the Kakadeo estate of 23 villages, descended to Rawat Randhir Singh, whose death took place a week before that of his son. The latter's widow, Bachhraj Kunwar or Rani Baghelan, adopted Sheoratan Singh, and the estate was taken over by the Court of Wards. On its release quarrels arose and Sheoratan Singh obtained a decree for one-fourth of the whole, the remainder staying with Rani Baghelan till her death in 1896, when it passed to another woman who died in 1899 and left the estate to a temple, vesting the management in the family priest, who is now the virtual owner. There remains the Sachendi branch, which apparently sprang from Harsing Deo, a son of Raja Gargaj Deo of Sheorajpur. This man founded Harsinghpur and his descendant, Chachak Deo, built Sachendi and assumed the title of Raja, while of his brothers Kinnar Singh founded Binaur, Garab Deo settled in Garab and Parasram in Perajor, of pargana Akbarpur, still held by many of the clan. From

Chachak Deo came the famous Raja Hindu Singh of Sachendi, whose power became so great that in 1724 Saadat Khan, the Nawab Wazir, was unable to reduce him to submission, and it was only by the treachery of Gopal Singh, the Bhadauria Raja, that he was ejected from his forts of Binaur and Sachendi.* His son Sambhar Singh, however, recovered his estates in 1742 and actually drove out Raja Risal Singh from Sheorajpur, the latter being compelled to invoke the aid of Najaf Khan, the Nazim of the Nawab Wazir. Hindu Singh's brothers, Jograj and Hirde Singh, became Rajas of Binaur and Panki, but none of these titles have been formally recognised by the British Government. Sachendi and Binaur were confiscated in 1858, and Dhijraj Singh of Panki has little more than a half share in the single village of Panki Gangaganj. There are many other branches of the Chandels, such as the Thakurs of Sona and the colony at Targaon in Ghatampur, but none is of any historical interest.

Chau-
han.

The chief Chauhan colony is said to have been founded by one Khemraj, who came from Mainpuri and, for services rendered in subjugating the Meos, received a grant of 36 villages in the south of Akbarpur. The first settlement was at Mohana; but the head of the family, who still bears the title of Rai, afterwards moved to Seontha. The present titleholder, Rai, Ram Singh, has hardly any property left, mainly owing to the extravagance and indebtedness of his father, Rai Parduman Singh, who died in 1874. Another colony was established by one Ghansham Singh, also of Mainpuri, about the beginning of the eighteenth century. He obtained from Hindu Singh of Sachendi some 22 villages, including Ramaipur and Narwal, from which he ejected the Gautams. This Ghansham Singh appears to have been a great personage, and is said to have built 32 forts. At annexation Raja Sirnet Singh refused to engage and the Ramaipur branch has lost all its property. A small amount remains in the hands of the Narwal family, which also bore the title of Raja, the present representative being Hukum Singh.

Bais.

The Bais of this district invariably claim, and perhaps with reason, to be offshoots of the great house of Daundia Khara in Unao. Their first settlement was at Tilsabri, in

*E. H. I., VIII, p. 46.

the Narwal tahsil, and from this stock came the *zamindars* of Tiwaripur Salempur. Thence they spread westwards to Fatehpur Roshnai in Akbarpur, where they seized twelve villages from the Meos including their old capital of Kasru Khara. Other Bais established themselves at Patara in Ghatampur, and a fourth colony from Tilsahri occupied a tract of land in the Bhognipur tahsil.

The Gautams state that their ancestors spread into this ^{Gautama,} district from Fatehpur about five hundred years ago, though it is very probable that the influence of the Rajas of Argal was felt in the southern parganas at an early date, since that principality was at one time very powerful and extensive. Biposi, the modern Najafgarh, is said to have been founded by one Bahram Sah from Argal, but the estate did not long survive. Another settlement was at Chirali, of which the owner was styled Rao and was lord of 24 villages between the Pandu and Rind, many of which are still held by the clan: the chief representatives are Dhulam Singh and Huzuri Singh, who own four or five villages. Another settlement was at Sisupur and Raipur, and twelve jungle villages came into the hands of the clan in that neighbourhood.

The earliest Panwar colony is attributed to Kuber Singh ^{Panwars,} of Dharanagar in Ujjain, who is said to have stopped at the Deojani tank at Musanagar in the course of a pilgrimage and to have chosen the place for his abode. Dharanagar was also the home of the Panwars of Itaunja in Lucknow, though there is no reason to connect the two settlements. Kuber Singh's descendant, Pulandar Sah, built the village of Pulandar, and his estate comprised twelve villages. The family afterwards, split into two branches, one of which obtained the title of Raja of Gilauli from the Nawab Wazir, but is now reduced to great poverty. The Panwars still hold some villages in Bhognipur, which they seized from the Meos. Those of Kotra Makrandpur in the Ghatampur pargana claim descent from one Bagdeo of Dharanagar, who received twelve villages as the dowry of his wife, the daughter of the Hamirpur Raja, some five centuries ago. A third and quite distinct family dates from the reign of Akbar, when two *risaldars* named Man Singh and Narayan Das settled at Amauli to the south of Ghatampur and thence spread into

Dohru and Kohra. The fourth colony is perhaps older than any of the others, for their tradition states that one Sur Sah, a Panwar of Ujjain, was in the service of Jai Chand of Kanauj and from him obtained the grant of Ankin and all the land between the Isan and Ganges. These Panwars afterwards colonised Mariani, Bhituri, and Kakupur, but at the present time their possessions are very small. They are generally known as Ujjainis from the city of their origin, and the same appellation has been assumed by the Panwars of the Dunraon family in Shahabad.

Gahar-
wars.

The Gaharwars once held all the south and south-east of Bilhaur, but their present estates are comparatively small. Their story states that on the overthrow of the Gaharwar dynasty of Kanauj the sons of Manik Chand fled to the hills, whence one of them returned to settle in Aurangpur Sambhi, a village now owned by the Shukuls of Dundwa Jamauli: there he managed to oust the Panwars and established himself at Sengh on the Ganges, afterwards called Akbarpur Sengh. He assumed the title of Raja, and his descendants held 21 villages in Bilhaur and seven on the east bank of the river. A cadet branch with the title of Rao held seventeen villages, of which the chief was Madara, but this has become extinct, while the Raja lost all but nine villages under the Oudh administration. Further reductions would doubtless have followed but for the intervention of the Court of Wards on behalf of Takht Singh, the adopted son of Raja Bhawani Singh. The property is now in a fair condition, and Takht Singh's son, Partab Narayan Singh, who is locally known as Raja, holds eight villages in this district and four in Unao, with a revenue demand of some Rs. 5,300.

Gahlot.

The chief Gahlot settlement is in the north-west of Bilhaur and the adjoining portion of Farrukhabad, which was acquired from the Meos by one Gobind Rao in the days of the Kanauj kings. Four generations later came Narsingh Bhan, who divided his property between his sons Hamir and As, the former obtaining 33 and the latter 25 villages. Spreading eastwards they ejected the Gaurs from the western villages of the old Bilhaur pargana, where their territory was known as the Tisah or three harvests—*kharif*, *rabi* and plunder. The descendants of As now hold but portions of

fourteen villages, but those sprung from Hamir have retained five whole villages and shares in five others : the chief family is that of Uttha, to the north of Kakwan.

Mention may also be made of the Dikhits who, under their leader Ghatam Deo, were the first Rajput settlers in Ghatampur. There they acquired 181 villages, many of which went to a Musalman branch of the clan established at Reona. In the same tahsil a colony of Parihars, with headquarters at Gujela to the south of Ghatampur, settled about six hundred years ago. The Sombansis have a small estate of some antiquity in the west of the old Bilhaur pargana, adjoining the domains of the Gaurs and Gahlots. Others include the Sisodias of Ahrauli-ghat in the extreme south of Bhognipur; the Janwars of Bagdodi, Pem and Karsauli in the old Bithur pargana; and scattered settlements of Karchulis from Hamirpur, Sengars from Etawah and Bhadaurias who came at a comparatively late date from the Bah tahsil of Agra. The Kachhwahas of Bhognipur and the west are not regarded as true Rajputs but are popularly believed to be the descendants of the Meos, while others of the same race adopted similar Rajput names, such as Chauhan, Chandel and Gautam. Always notorious for their turbulence and recusancy, they give more trouble to the revenue authorities than any other caste, and their origin is shown by the refusal of the true Rajputs to have any dealings with them. Other class.

After the Rajputs come the Kurmis, who numbered 54,328 souls or 4.76 per cent. of the Hindu population. Their distribution is uneven, as one-third of them belong to the Bhognipur tahsil and nearly one-fifth to Ghatampur, while the bulk of the remainder is drawn from Bilhaur and Sheorajpur, the number elsewhere, and particularly in Narwal, being relatively small. The Kurmis of this district are for the most part members of the Kutwar and Sunwan subdivisions, which do not occur elsewhere in any appreciable strength. The caste has been described as the backbone of the agricultural community; and their skill in husbandry, together with their incessant industry, in which they are ably seconded by their womenfolk, places them in the foremost rank of cultivators. Their chief settlements are the tract known as the Kurmiat in Bilhaur, between the Isan Kurmis.

and the Ganges; the land between the latter river and the Non in Sheorajpur; the northern borders of Bhognipur and the north-west and south-east of Ghatampur. These are all of considerable antiquity, and the Kurmis have been more successful than many other castes in retaining their landed property, although with few exceptions they do better as tenants than as zamindars. In the Sheorajpur tahsil they have gained extensively of late, while in all parts they are steadily increasing the area in their possession as cultivating tenants. The chief seat of the Ghatampur Kurmis is Baripal, where the principal family is that of the Chaudhris: one of them named Bihari Singh, was made a tahsildar during the Mutiny and obtained a large estate in reward for his services. Many of the Kurmis are known as Jhamaiyas, owing to their adherence to Sheikh Jhama, better known as Makhdum Jahania Jahangasht. They are distinct from the rest of the caste, and have adopted several Musalman customs: they marry entirely among themselves, and in former days at any rate they used to bury their dead.

Koris.

Koris or weavers numbered 51,026 or 4·47 per cent. of the Hindus, the former being a higher figure than in any other district, Gonda and Balraich alone excepted. No fewer than 17,646 were found in the Cawnpore tahsil, where they find employment in the mills: but they are very common throughout the district, particularly in Sheorajpur and Ghatampur. They still carry on their ancestral trade, turning out country cloth for local use, but in many cases they are cultivators and general labourers. They have many subdivisions, the most important being the Kamariha, which is seldom found elsewhere.

Kachhis.

The Kachhis are market-gardeners by occupation and rank highest of all the cultivating castes, generally holding the best land in a village and consequently paying the heaviest rent. Including the Muraos, who are practically identical, they aggregated 48,479 souls, or 4·2 per cent. of the Hindus. While fairly strong everywhere, they are most numerous in the rich suburban lands of the Cawnpore tahsil, and then follow Derapur and Ghatampur. Of their subdivisions the chief is the Kachhwaha, comprising more than half the entire caste, and then follow the Bahenia and

Kanaujia. As a cultivator the Kachhi is very independent, for his skill renders him a most desirable tenant and a landlord can effect few greater improvements to his estate than by inducing Kachhis to settle in the village.

The Lodhs, who come next in order, are another caste **Lodha.** of excellent cultivators. They numbered 47,401 or 4·16 per cent. of the Hindus: two-fifths belong to the Cawnpore tahsil, and the bulk of the remainder reside in Sheorajpur, Billhaur and Derapur. They invariably prefer the canal irrigated tracts, and make the utmost use of facilities for watering their fields. As husbandmen they are somewhat inferior to the Kurmis, but their high rents afford an indication of their usefulness. The Lodhs at one time owned some land in Sheorajpur, but they no longer figure as proprietors. Like other castes they have numerous subdivisions, but almost all those in this district, as in Fatehpur and Etawah, are described as Jariyas.

The Gadariyas occur in greater strength than in any **Gadariyas.** other district of the United Provinces, with a total of 47,104 persons or 4·13 per cent. of the Hindu community. Shepherds and goatherds by profession, they resemble the Ahirs in their general characteristics, chiefly frequenting the jungle and ravine tracts, whither they take their flocks and herds together with the animals belonging to others, for which they receive a small customary remuneration. As cultivators they have attained no high standard of husbandry, and are usually in possession of poor outlying fields. They recognise, however, the value of manure, and derive considerable wealth from the fees given by other tenants for penning the flocks of sheep on their lands. The caste is evenly distributed, but is strongest relatively in Akbarpur, Derapur and Bhognipur. Most of the Gadariyas belong to the great Nikhar and Dhingar subdivisions, though many others, notably the Panwars are represented.

Next follow the Banias, of whom 38,639 were enumerated, **Banias.** this caste comprising 3·39 per cent. of the Hindus. No fewer than 20,915 belonged to the Cawnpore tahsil, as is but natural since they hold a large share in the trade of the city. Elsewhere they are most numerous in Bhognipur, especially

in the south. They have acquired a fair amount of land, but as a rule the village money-lender of this district is more often a Brahman than a Bania, and their hold in the country is not great. Their commonest subdivision is that of the Dihusars, of whom there were 10,000 in 1891. They trace their origin to Dehli, whence they have spread over these provinces, and are remarkably catholic in their occupations. The Umars, 6,945 persons at the last census, are found everywhere, but chiefly in Cawnpore, Ghatampur and Bilhaur. The Agarwals, 6,769, belong with few exceptions to Cawnpore, though there is a large colony in Bhognipur. Others worthy of note are the Ajodhyabasis, Parwars, Gahois, Jamanias, Mahesris, Agraharis and Kandus, in each case mainly confined to Cawnpore, while in Bhognipur there is a fair number of Uswals.

Telis.

The Telis or oil-pressers numbered 31,560 persons, a figure which is exceeded in Gorakhpur. One-third of the total is included in the Cawnpore tahsil, and the rest belong for the most part to the northern parganas of the district. In addition to their customary occupation they are commonly engaged in agriculture, though with no conspicuous success. Most of the Telis here style themselves Rathors, borrowing the title from the Rajputs, while others adopt the Kayasth designation of Sribastab, or the Bania name of Umar, these with the Jaiswars of Oudh forming their main subdivisions.

Nais.

Little need be said of the Nais, of whom there were 25,046, the caste being found in considerable numbers everywhere.

Kahars.

These again are nearly all Sribastabs, but they rank even lower than the Telis in the social scale. The Kahars, 21,338 persons, occur in strength throughout the district, and while most of them are employed as domestic servants their occupations are widely varied, since they betake themselves impartially to agriculture, fishing and general labour. They have many subdivisions, but the chief here represented are the Bathma Dhuriya and Goriya.

The Kayasths are of considerable importance as landowners, and there are several old, though in most cases decayed, families of this caste. That of Téonga in pargana Bhognipur is said to have been founded by one Tanak Singh who was placed in charge of the conquered Meo territory b

Malik Sadhan in the days of Ala-ud-din Khilji. Tanak Singh's descendant, Kirat Singh, was appointed *qanungo* and *chaudhri* of the pargana by Shahjahan; and subsequently the family split up into three branches, settled at Teonga, Kandhi and Sathra, while other offshoots were those of Arhariamau, Shahpur and Khalla. At the beginning of British rule Teonga was owned by Sarup Singh, a man of great influence who had held a valuable *jagir* in the days of Asaf-ud-daula. He contracted with Almas Ali Khan for 365 villages and held 139 at cession, in 40 of which he was recorded as proprietor. His fraudulent title was, however, discovered by the special commission, and he was stripped of all his estates save Teonga and Shahpur, which were subsequently confiscated on account of the rebellion of his grandson. The Kayasths of Gauhani in the old pargana of Sikandra were given the offices of *qanungo* and *chaudhri*, together with the grant of 14 villages, by Akbar: and these were afterwards settled with them in proprietary right, though the title of *chaudhri* was taken from them by Almas Ali Khan and the office of *qanungo* was lost in 1846. The Derapur family were *qanungos* of that pargana in Akbar's reign and acquired a large property, especially when one of them was agent to Almas Ali Khan: and at cession a number of estates were settled with them. In pargana Ghatampur the *qanungos* were the Kayasths of Bhadrās, which was held in revenue-free tenure, while another but more recent family is that of Benda and Para. In many other places Kayasth officials obtained grants of land, as for example six villages in Rasulabad: but during the last century they have lost much ground. Altogether Kayasths numbered 15,125 persons in 1901, of whom more than one-third were found in the Cawnpore tashil, the rest being very evenly distributed. They have many subdivisions: but the great majority describe themselves as Sribastabs, though there is a larger number of the Unai clan than in any other district.

The remaining castes possessing from 10,000 to 20,000 members apiece are Dhanuks or cotton carders, 19,122, the highest figure for any district; Dhobis, 18,022; Lohars, 16,718; Kumhars, 16,044; Baurias, 15,064; Mallahs, Other castes.

12,800; Barhais, 10,155; and Bharbhunjas, or Bhurjis, 10,007. All these are too well known to require any special mention except the Baurias, who are far more numerous than in any other district and are confined to the Allahabad division and to Etawah and Hardoi. Most of them belong to the Cawnpore and Narwal tahsils: they are cultivators and village servants by occupation, and are closely akin to, if not identical with, the Pasis of other parts. Then come eight castes with numbers exceeding 5,000: Khatiks, 9,869; Kalwars, 8,715; Sonars, 8,583; Bhats, 6,212, this figure being exceeded only in Patehpur; Malis, 6,020; Faqirs of various descriptions, 5,536; Kewats, 5,165; and Bhangis, 5,068. After these follow Lunias, Darzis, Tambolis, Halwais, Bahealias, Baris, Khattris, Arakhs and Nats, in each case more than 2,000 strong. The Khattris with few exceptions belong to Cawnpore and comprise a number of wealthy families, some of whom have acquired considerable estates in Narwal, Bhognipur and elsewhere. The Arakhs were traditionally the earliest inhabitants of Narwal and other parts but are now of no account, while the Meos, as already mentioned, who held the greater part of the district in ancient days, now claim for themselves rank as Rajputs. One or two of the minor castes occur in unusual numbers or are not met with generally. Such are the Balahars, 1,588, in the Ghatampur and Bhognipur tahsils only: a few are to be found in Hamirpur, Jalaun, Muttra and Saharanpur, but it is doubtful whether they should be considered a separate caste as they are essentially Doms, just as are the Basors, 1,121. Both are employed as village servants and both are engaged in basket-making, the invariable characteristic of the gypsy throughout the world. Mochis, 1,438, are practically confined to Cawnpore, where they work in the leather factories, and their number is, naturally enough, larger than in any other district. The criminal and vagrant tribes occur in unusual strength. There were 2,183 Nats, 919 Berias, 587 Kanjars and 25 Kaparias, a larger number than anywhere else: all of the last were women, a fact which illustrates the general tendency on the part of such tribes to conceal their identity at the census for fear of arousing suspicion. Small numbers of the castes peculiar to Bundelkhand also occur along the Jumna, as for example the Khairwas who extract catechu

from the *khatr* tree, and the **Kuneras** who make pipe-stems from its wood.

The Muhammadan community is almost as diversified **Musalmans**, as that of the Hindus, embracing representatives of no fewer than 56 different tribes and castes, excluding subdivisions, as well as 386 persons who gave no specific denomination. At the same time a large number of these castes are of little importance. In 31 instances the total was less than 100 persons, and in 17 of these it was ten or under; while on the other hand the castes with over 1,000 persons apiece numbered but twelve and the six with 5,000 members and upwards constitute 85·75 per cent. of the entire Musalman population. Moreover, few of these castes call for special mention as they seldom occur in unusual strength, and by far the greater number have their exact Hindu counterparts from whom they differ in a slight degree, the division between the two religions in many cases being of the vaguest description. Nominally 97·04 per cent. of the Musalmans were Sunnis, while of the rest 2·66 per cent. were Shias and the others, with the exception of 34 Wahabis, were Lalbegis, though it is curious that all the latter, who are only Muhammadans by courtesy, were of the female sex. The Lalbegis are all Bhangis or sweepers by caste, and it appears that it is here the fashion for such persons to describe themselves as orthodox Sunnis.

Among the Musalmans the leading place is taken by the **Sheikhs**. Sheikhs, with a total of 53,485 souls at the last census, or 47·7 per cent. of the entire Muhammadan population. The figure is remarkably high and, in fact, is exceeded only in Moradabad and Allahabad. Their distribution is very uneven, for though they predominate in every tahsil, no less than 32,527 belong to Cawnpore, while in Akbarpur and Narwal the number is relatively small. These Sheikhs are drawn from many subdivisions, but the chief are the Siddiqis, 19,259, and Qurreshis, 18,844, no others being of any importance; though there is a fair number of Faruqis in the Cawnpore and Bhognipur tahsils, notably the ancient family of Jajmau. Many of the Sheikhs belong to no particular subdivision, and the name is adopted merely to conceal a Hindu origin. Indeed it is impossible to suppose that more than a

very small proportion of the Sheikhs can trace a descent to an Arabian ancestor, and it seems to be the case that in old days the converts used to adopt the clan of the official at whose hands they were admitted into Islam. There are very few Sheikh families of any importance, and the majority are either cultivators of an inferior stamp or else engaged in industrial or commercial pursuits. The family of Nasir Ali, who rendered himself notorious in the early days of British rule by his fraudulent purchases of land, has fallen on evil days and his descendants now reside in Chapra, one branch being very embarrassed, while the property of the other is administered by the Court of Wards.

Pathans.

The Pathans come next with 18,346 representatives or 16·36 per cent. of the Musalmans. Of these 10,007 were enumerated in the Cawnpore tahsil, the rest being scattered over the district. Some are the descendants of old settlers, while others came during the period of Farrukhabad rule, to which may be traced the various Bangash colonies in Bhognipur, Ghatampur and elsewhere. Of the various clans the chief is the Yusufzai with 5,297 representatives, of whom two-thirds belonged to tahsil Cawnpore and the bulk of the remainder to Akbarpur and Bhognipur. Next come Ghoris, in the same tahsils and Bilhaur; Bangash, already mentioned; and Lodis, principally in Cawnpore, Derapur and Bilhaur. Many others are found, but in no case is the number large. Nearly half the Pathans, indeed, come under no special denomination or else belong to clans not generally recognised; and this must inevitably be the case where, as so often happens, the descendants of converted Rajputs have assumed the style of Khan and pass themselves off as of Pathan extraction. One of the chief Pathan families is that of the Chaudhris of Derapur, who once held a *chaurasi* or 84 villages, though they are now in reduced circumstances and their property is very small. They claim descent from one Khudadad Khan, an officer in Akbar's army, who received the original grant.

Saiyids.

The Saiyids take the third place with 7,056 representatives, nearly half of these belonging to the Cawnpore tahsil and the bulk of the remainder to Bhognipur and Bilhaur. In most cases they claim descent from the Qazis, Muftis and

other officials under the Mughal government, but, though they retain some property, they are usually in reduced circumstances, and there are now few families of importance. More than half the Saiyids belong to none of the generally recognised subdivisions, of which the chief are the Husaini, mainly in Cawnpore; the Rizwi, in Cawnpore, Bhognipur and Bilhaur; and the Jafari, in the two last tahsils. One of the principal Saiyid families is that descended from Aga Mir, known also as Mutamad-ud-daula, the minister of Nasir-ud-din Haidar of Oudh, who retired and settled at Cawnpore in 1830 with a pension of Rs. 25,000, being a portion of the interest due on a crore of rupees lent to the Company by Ghazi-ud-din Haidar through the minister's agency. On his death, in 1830, the pension was divided between his four sons and his son-in-law. Amin-ud-daula, the eldest, took up his residence in Lucknow; Nawab Nizam-ud-daula was reduced to great poverty through extravagance; Nawab Muhammad Ali Khan, known as the Nanneh Nawab, took a prominent part in the rebellion but was afterwards cleared by a court of enquiry on the ground of compulsion—he retired in 1861 to Mecca, where he died; and Nawab Baqir Ali Khan, though also an object of suspicion, succeeded in establishing his innocence and lived in Cawnpore till his death in 1874. His two sons, Nawab Saiyid Ali and Nawab Jafar Ali, reside in Gwaltoli and are well known in Cawnpore: they receive a portion of the pension, but have long been embarrassed by debt. The oldest family of Saiyid is that of Bhognipur, in the Akbarpur tahsil, founded by one Ahsan at the time of the Musalman conquest. His descendants acquired ten villages, some of which they still retain.

The Behnas or Dhunias, cotton carders by occupation, numbered 6,270, and the Julahas or weavers 5,398. The former are very evenly distributed, while the majority of the latter are congregated in Cawnpore where they find abundant employment in the mills. The number of Musalman weavers is surprisingly small for a great manufacturing district: and outside Cawnpore itself they are almost insignificant, their place being taken by the Hindu Koris. In either case these castes as a rule follow their ancestral calling, but not unfrequently they are agriculturists as well.

Other
Musalmans.

Of the rest Faqirs, 5,591 alone number more than 1,000 persons; and then come Bhangis, 2,920, and Manihars or glass-makers, 2,284 the latter belonging mainly to Derapur, Akbarpur and other *usar* tracts where facilities exist for carrying on their occupation. The Mughals, 1,620, for the most part drawn from the Chaghtai and Turkman sub-divisions, reside mainly in Cawnpore and Akbarpur. In the latter they once held a large estate known as pargana Barah and founded by a soldier of fortune named Quth Beg, who obtained a grant of land for services rendered in chastising the Meos. They claim to have been settled there since the time of Muhammad Ghori; but it is more than improbable that there were any Mughals in his army, although possibly the first settlers may have been Pathans. Under the administration of Almas Ali Khan the Mughals of Barah attained considerable influence and made large additions to their estates. Qassabs, or butchers, Darzies and Kunjras are the only remaining castes with more than 1,000 members apiece. The converted Rajputs numbered but 571, and are found principally in Akbarpur and Cawnpore. Those in the former are either Chauhans converted by Aurangzeb or Chandels who apostatised at the bidding of Muhammad Khan of Farukhabad. In Ghatampur there are some Musalman Dikhits, who embraced Islam in consequence of a vow on the part of Ghatam Deo, when praying for a son at the shrine of Shah Madar. While observing Musalman ceremonies they largely retain their Hindu names and customs, especially in the case of marriage. Nothing need be said of the minor castes, who are of no ethnological interest so far as this district is concerned. It is somewhat strange, however, to find eight Musalman Dangis, a caste of cultivators who belong chiefly to Jhansi and are, with these exceptions, invariably Hindus. The appearance of 19 Musalman Brahmans in the census report is obviously a mistake, due to the fact that they were entered under the name of Bhura Gujrati.

Christianity

The Christian population at the last census included 2,663 Europeans, 295 Eurasians and 1,456 natives. The last figure shows a remarkable increase, the total in 1891 being but 586 and at the previous enumeration 259. Of the present total 547 belonged to the Anglican Church, 330 were Methodists, 104 Roman Catholics, 50 Presbyterians and the rest of no

specified denomination. These returns indicate the various proselytising agencies at work in the district and their relative importance. Foremost in age and prestige stands the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. This society took over in 1833 the evangelistic work initiated in 1809 by Henry Martyn and the chaplains who succeeded him. An orphanage was established after the Bundelkhand famine in 1835, and was at first housed in the Salvador or Savada Kothi in cantonments: in 1846 it was removed to new premises at Gutaiya, and the place was known as Asrapur. On the outbreak of the Mutiny the missionaries were murdered, and the buildings almost destroyed; but these were restored afterwards and the orphanage again continued to flourish till 1875, when the boys were removed to Roorkee. The girls remained at Asrapur till the purchase of the site for the experimental farm, when a new girls' school and orphanage was built on the outskirts of Cawnpore, close to the Subadar's tank. In 1861 Christ Church, which had been built as a place of worship for the civil station in 1839 at a cost of Rs. 36,000 raised by subscription, and consecrated in the following year by Bishop Wilson, was handed over to the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel on the condition that one English service should be held in it every Sunday. In 1859 the mission started the Christ Church school, which has since developed into the Christ Church college, affiliated to the Allahabad university for the first arts examination in 1892, for the B.A., in 1896, for the LL.B. in 1898 and for the M.A. in 1900. The present college buildings were opened in 1898, and attached to them are hostels for Christian, Hindu and Musalman students. The Society for the Propagation of the Gospel further supports a high school in connection with the college, a branch anglo-vernacular school in Generalganj, a divinity school named after Henry Martyn and a school for Hindu girls. The mission staff comprises a brotherhood of English clergymen and a sisterhood of deaconesses, who undertake the management of the orphanage, the Zanana House and St. Catherine's hospital for women. Mention should also be made of the industrial workshops, comprising a printing-press, carpenter's shop and brass foundry, which have done excellent work. There is an out-station of the mission at Ghatampur, from which village

work is carried on : at one time an agricultural settlement was maintained there, but the boys were removed to Cawnpore to work in the mills. Several native catechists live at Ghatampur, and during the cold weather an ordained clergyman generally resides in the place. In 1840 there was a Baptist mission in Cawnpore, but this did not long survive. The other agencies at the present time are of recent date. The American Episcopalian Methodists have a church in cantonments and maintain three anglo-vernacular schools in the city, two of these being for girls, one native and one European, while the boys' school has a hostel and workshops attached. The mission extends its operations into the district, and the staff numbers 135 persons working from twelve centres. The remaining missions, the Presbyterian and the American Women's Union, conduct a teachers' training class and a girls' orphanage, and at the same time pay special attention to *zanana* work in the city. Besides the churches already mentioned there are in Cawnpore the old cantonment church of St. John, built in 1837 by Government, consecrated by Bishop Wilson in 1840 and now handed over to the Church of Scotland, services being conducted by the Presbyterian chaplain; the Memorial Church of All Souls, built and consecrated in 1875, the funds being contributed partly by Government, partly by subscriptions in India and partly by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, who raised Rs. 19,019 in England for the purpose of building a church on the site of the final massacre, but afterwards gave this amount in consideration for the grant of Christ Church; and a Roman Catholic church in cantonments, with a convent and school for native and European children. The Memorial Church, served by the Government chaplain, is a striking building of red brick faced with stone, and cost over two lakhs of rupees, exclusive of the fittings which were provided by private subscriptions, including the marble floor presented by the Maharaja of Jodhpur. It is built on the site of Wheeler's entrenchment, and it contains memorial tablets to the victims of the great rebellion. It is interesting to note that Cawnpore was one of the eight parishes into which the province of Bengal was divided in 1788 for ecclesiastical purposes.*

*Calcutta Gazette, 11th August, 1788.

The Arya Samaj first made its appearance in Cawnpore in 1879, when a society of 18 members was formed under the presidency of the late Rai Madho Ram Bahadur, a merchant. The movement spread, and by 1891 the total number of adherents in the district was 620; but it was not till 1894 that the Samaj acquired a plot of land in Cawnpore, opposite the present Commercial Buildings, and there erected a fairly substantial house at a cost of some Rs. 8,000. The total number of members in 1901 was 977; but this included the Aryas belonging to the independent lodges in the district at Akbarpur, Bidhnu, Sarayan, Sheoli, Musanagar, Mahera and Sachendi. The members included 400 Brahmans, 180 Kayasths, 129 Banias and 109 Rajputs, the rest being drawn from many other castes, principally Khattris and Kurmis. The Samaj at Cawnpore has at present about 100 registered members. Meetings are held every Sunday and on special occasions, such as public holidays: there are no paid lecturers, but addresses are given by the members themselves or by preachers invited from elsewhere. Not long ago an attempt was made to start a women's Samaj, but the scheme was abandoned as a failure after a brief trial. In February, 1907, a free night-school was opened for the instruction of pupils of all classes in English, Hindi and mathematics: it has now some forty boys on the roll, and receives a monthly grant-in-aid from the municipality. The Samaj possesses a library, and also owns a *havan-kund* for the purposes of cremation at Bhairon-ghat. About five years ago an attempt was made by one of the members to build a *dharamshala* at Makanpur, but the project was dropped on the strong objections raised by the Musalmans of that village. The Cawnpore society is a strong supporter of the *gurukul* near Hardwar, and has made large contributions towards it.

The other religions are of little importance. The Jains with few exceptions reside in Cawnpore, and are principally traders and shopkeepers of the Bania caste. The Parsis too are confined to the city, where they own several trading establishments. The Sikhs are for the most part Punjabis employed in the police or in other Government service.

The presence of a commercial and industrial centre of first rate importance must necessarily be reflected in the occupation statement of the district. On the other hand the rural

area is so large that the agricultural interest far outweighs all others, and for this same reason it is impossible to compare Cawnpore with other districts possessing large cities and business centres, such as Lucknow and Benares, the territorial area of whose districts is infinitely smaller. According to the census returns the agricultural community comprises 61·9 per cent. of the total population, exclusive of 6·3 per cent. engaged in pasture and the care of animals, and also of the very considerable number of persons who betake themselves to tillage of the land as a subsidiary form of employment. The next great class consists of the industrial population, including all those engaged in the manufacture and supply of material substances: and this constitutes 14·97 per cent. of the whole, a figure which is actually identical with the general average for the entire province. The class covers a very wide field, but of the main sub-divisions the supply of articles of food and drink makes up 35·6 per cent., textile fabrics 27·6, metals 11·4, leather 7·1, wood and cognate industries 6, and glass, earthenware and stone 3·7 per cent. These figures, however, are of little value, since they fail to convey any idea of the relative importance of agriculture and other industries. The third class, general labour other than agricultural, accounts for 8·56 per cent. of the population, and then follow personal and domestic service with 7·9; commerce, transport and storage, with 1·9; administration, including military, provincial and local service, with 1·49; the professional population with 1·38; and means of subsistence independent of any occupation with 1·27 per cent. The actual commercial population is very small, amounting to but 4 per cent. of the whole, or very much less than the provincial average. The district has in fact no large business community, as is to be found in those of the upper Doab, although the figure entirely fails to represent the comparative wealth and commercial importance of Cawnpore.

Language. The common tongue of the people is the Kanaujia dialect of western Hindi; but as the Awadhi form of eastern Hindi prevails in Fatehpur and in the adjacent districts beyond the Ganges, and Bundeli, another type of western Hindi, is generally spoken to the south of the Jumna, it is clear that there can be no hard-and-fast line of demarcation. It is true

that physical features, such as great rivers, form fairly effective barriers; but on the other hand it is impossible to say where the Kananjia of Farrukhabad ends and the Awadhi of Fatehpur begins. As a rule the distinctions observed by the people are extremely vague and often inaccurate. The tongue of the river bank, for example, called *tirhari* or *kinar-ki-boli*, is eastern Hindi in Fatehpur and western Hindi in Hamirpur, the difference being really very marked although the name is identical. As a matter of fact there is in this district a considerable admixture of both Awadhi and Bundeli with Kananjia. A further confusion is introduced by the adoption of Urdu on the part of the educated classes, especially Musalmans, though the contrast between this and Kananjia is by no means so great as where Urdu is found in conjunction with some dialect of eastern Hindi. The census returns show that 99·58 per cent. of the people speak western Hindi, 6·7 per cent. using Urdu or Hindustani, while the other languages are very varied, the most important being English and Bengali.

Cawnpore has produced several authors of repute, though the majority belong to a single famous family. These are the Tirpathi Brahmans of Tikwanpur in the Ghataampur tahsil. In the reign of Shahjahan four brothers of this house rose to prominence, the chief being Chintamani, a great master of vernacular composition, who was patronised by Shahjahan himself. Five of his works are extant, the most important being a treatise on prosody entitled *Chhandbichar*. Bhukhan Tirpathi attended the courts of Chhatarsal of Panna and the Raja of Satara: he adopted the tragic style, and of his four extant works the best is the *Shivaraj Bhukhan*. Moti Ram, who died in 1682, wandered from court to court, and wrote the *Lalit Lalain* dealing with rhetoric and two other works still in existence. The fourth was Nilkanth, none of whose composition remains though he was celebrated as a poet and a religious teacher. Two descendants of Moti Ram, named Bihari Lal and Sital, flourished during the first half of the nineteenth century and frequented the courts of Charkhari and other Bundelkhand Rajas. Narayan, a Brahman of Kakupur who was born in 1752, was an author of repute and wrote a metrical history of the Sheorajpur Chandels. Other well-known poets were the Shukuls of Makrandpur .

Kainjri who flourished about 1810 : there were three brothers, Deokinandan, Gur Datt and Shibnath, of whom the second wrote the *Pachchhi Bilas*. About the same time lived Debi Datt, a Brahman of Sarh, who lived at the court of the Char-khari Raja. At the present time the vocation of bard has almost vanished, and the literature of the district is mainly confined to newspapers and periodicals. There is a very large number of printing-presses in the city, but the publications are for the most part of little importance. The English newspapers at present in existence are the *Cawnpore Journal*, published at the Victoria Press in the Mall, and the *Cawnpore Local News*, issued from the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel Mission Press : both are weeklies dealing mainly with local topics, and the circulation does not exceed 400 copies. Among the vernacular newspapers the chief is the *Zamanah*, an Urdu weekly. The rest are for the most part concerned with special subjects or intended to promote the interests of a particular class. Such are the *Arya Samachar*, an Urdu monthly organ of the Arya Samaj; the *Cawnpore Gazette*, an Urdu weekly with a pronounced nationalist tendency; the *Mufid-ul-mazarain*, a monthly magazine published at the Law Press on behalf of the department of Land Records and Agriculture; the two Hindi monthlies printed at the Cawnpore Indian Press in the interests of Hindu orthodoxy, and entitled the *Sudha Sagar* and the *Kanyakubja Hitkari*; the *Sipahi*, a Roman-Urdu monthly dealing with general news but particularly with army reform; and the *Kalwar Gazette*, a Hindi monthly run in the interest of the Kalwars and, like the last printed at the Cawnpore Army Press in Juli Kalan. Almost all these publications are of more or less recent origin, and not one of the newspapers which were flourishing thirty years ago is now in existence.

Proprietary
tenures.

The proprietary tenures of Cawnpore present no peculiar features, being identical with those found throughout the United Provinces. The district is essentially one of small or medium-sized properties, and this fact probably accounts for the great preponderance of the *zamindari* forms of tenure. At the time of the recent settlement the 2,044

villages of the district were divided into 5,717 *mahals*, and of the latter no fewer than 2,986 were held in joint *zamin-dari* tenure and 1,715 were owned by single proprietors. In the remainder the perfect form of *pattidari* is most common, being found in 620 *mahals*, while 372 are imperfect *pattidari* and 24 are *bhaiyachara*, the last being practically confined to the Ghatampur and Bhognipur tahsils. The predominance of the *zamin-dari* type is due to the enormous number of transfers which have taken place during the past century, an estate sold for arrears of revenue at once passing from *pattidari* to *zamin-dari* while a similar result ensues from sales under the decree of a civil court. Further this process, which is a more or less natural concomitant of the present system of revenue administration, was greatly accelerated in the early years of the nineteenth century by the numerous illegal and fraudulent transfers which then took place, and of which only a fraction was annulled under the operations of the special commission. It is worthy of note that in 1877, just thirty years ago, the total number of *mahals* was only 2,550, and that the increase has been mainly confined to those of the *zamin-dari* type, which then aggregated 1,717 as against 818 *pattidari* and 15 *bhaiyachara*. If due allowance be made for transfers it will still be found that the great bulk of the partitions have occurred in the small *zamin-dari* estates. This is borne out by facts which tend to show that only the large proprietors and the cultivating communities can successfully hold their ground, while the small *zamin-dar* who tries to live on his rents, and whose property is being constantly split up into minute fractions under the ordinary rules of inheritance, has the least chance of maintaining his position: and it is among this class that the majority of the transfers have taken place. The increase in the number of *mahals* has been accompanied by a corresponding increase in the number of proprietors the latter now aggregating 36,572, exclusive of those in possession of alluvial *mahals*, and this gives an average of 6·5 per *mahal* and of 23 acres of cultivated land to each proprietor.

The transfers mentioned above have effected a striking change in the position of the proprietary body, and although

Proprietary
castes.

of late years they have been much less frequent and extensive than formerly, still during the currency of the last settlement the land that changed hands paid a revenue of Rs. 7,20,481, representing more than one-third of the total demand for the district. At the beginning of the period the old hereditary proprietors retained 347 whole estates and 721 in part, whereas at the end the figures were 157 and 865, respectively, 46 estates having entirely passed to strangers. It was calculated in 1870 that at the cession of the district the hereditary landowners held 81·3 per cent. of their original possessions; that by 1840 the proportion had been reduced to 60 per cent.; and that 30 years later it was no more than 37·4 per cent. Since 1870 the process has been checked, and in most cases the sales refer to estates acquired subsequent to the introduction of the British rule. In some instances the old landowning classes have actually improved their position, though this is to some extent due to their assumption of the role of the money-lender. Brahmans for example generally occupying in Cawnpore the position filled in many districts by Banias. Of the various proprietary castes Brahmans now take the foremost place, holding 33·2 per cent. of the area as compared with 14·21 held at cession. Next come Rajputs with 30·32 per cent. as against 49·97 held in 1802, though in this connection it must be remembered that they were the chief losers on account of the confiscations, notably in the case of the Sheorajpur estate. The minor clans have been the chief losers, apart from the Chandels, but the Gaurs and the Bais have to some extent improved their position. The Kurmis, who invariably cultivate their own land, show steady progress, and they now own 8·59 per cent. of the area as compared with 7·22 held at the time of cession; they are represented by a number of small families and communities who have made money both by indigo speculation and by usury. The Musalmans on the other hand exhibit a general decline, and their estates have fallen from 12·65 to 6·82 per cent. of the area; while the Kayasths have been even more unfortunate, since in place of 10·84 per cent. at cession they now hold only 4·54 per cent., their losses being due mainly to their own improvidence but partly to the action of the special commission, and the subsequent rebellion of several leading

families. The money-lending classes, including Banias, Khattris and Baqqals, owned 1.46 per cent. at cession, and have now attained 8.06; but the latter figure fails to represent adequately the state of affairs, since the salient feature in the situation has been the general progress of the banker, the speculator and the trader, irrespective of any particular caste. The remaining area is divided between Ahirs, who own 1.9 per cent. and have slightly increased their holdings, and other Hindus of the various denominations owning 6.57 per cent. of the area.

While there are in the district several properties of considerable size and importance, the owners are in the great ^{Chief} proprietors. majority of cases new or comparatively new men, and nothing is more striking in the general history of the district than the disappearance of the old estates, especially those of the Rajputs, whose Rajas, Rawats and Raos have either disappeared or have been reduced to the greatest straits. Even the most important Rajput property in the district, that of the Gaur family of Khanpur Dilwal in the Derapur tahsil, is in its present form of recent origin, the bulk of the land having been acquired by purchase or as the reward of loyalty during the rebellion of 1857.

Kesri Singh of Khanpur Dilwal had two sons, Mohkam Singh and Apa Singh, the latter being the father of Manik Singh, a tahsildar of Derapur. The former had four sons, Kinnar Singh, Guman Singh, Bhao Singh and Chandi Singh, all of whom joined in the defence of the Rasulabad tahsil and were handsomely rewarded. Kinnar Singh's sons were Gyan Singh, who is still alive and owns a property of 6,810 acres assessed at Rs. 9,322, comprising six whole villages and shares in 19 others in Derapur, five villages and two shares in Bhognipur, one village in Sheorajpur and five shares in Ghatampur; Khuman Singh, the father of Sheo Bakhsh Singh, Sabbha Singh and Gokul Singh, who has died and left two sons, their joint property including 17 shares in Derapur, four each in Akbarpur and Bilhaur, and three in Ghatampur, with an aggregate area of 4,167 acres and a revenue demand of Rs. 6,564; and Pahlwan Singh, who was succeeded by Bishnath Singh, whose

son, Ganga Singh, owns three villages and 17 shares in Derapur and three shares both in Bhognipur and in Ghatampur, the whole amounting to 4,384 acres paying revenue Rs. 7,637. Guman Singh, the second son of Mohkam Singh, had three sons, Rup Singh, who has been succeeded by Sital Singh; Sheo Dayal, who is still alive; and Durga Singh, the father of Niranjan Singh. This branch has some property in Derapur, though of no great extent. Bhao Singh, the third son, died without issue. Chandi Singh, the youngest, was followed by Dhaukal Singh, whose son Mathura Singh was the father of Rajendra Bahadur Singh. The latter owns a large property of 10,242 acres assessed at Rs. 13,934, comprising 35 villages and three shares in Derapur, eleven shares in Bilhaur, one village and four shares in Bhognipur and one share in Akbarpur. Another flourishing Gaur family is that of Jalihapur in the Derapur tahsil, now owned by Raghunath Singh, the son of Baldeo Singh, and his mother, Thakurain Indar Kunwar: it consists of three villages and fourteen shares in Derapur, two villages and one share in Akbarpur, and one share in Bilhaur, the whole amounting to 6,572 acres with a revenue demand of Rs. 10,987. The family is connected by marriage with the Raja of Jagamanpur in Jalaun, and the estates were largely increased by Baldeo Singh. Thakur Hulas Singh, the present head of the Gaurs of Makrandpur Kainjri, owns eleven shares in Bilhaur with an area of 2,213 acres and a revenue demand of Rs. 7,630. The Gaurs of Kasgawan in the Cawnpore tahsil come of the same stock as the Khanpur Dilwal family, and are now represented by Raghunandan Singh, Bhairon Singh and Bhikam Singh, the sons of Manik Kishor Singh, who own one village and ten shares in that tahsil, with an area of 4,509 acres and a revenue of Rs. 7,570. The chief Chauhan estate is that of Nonari in Derapur, now held by Thakurain Tej Kunwar, the widow of Gyan Singh: it comprises nine villages and two shares in Derapur with an area of 6,808 acres, paying revenue Rs. 12,611 in addition to Rs. 656 on land in the Etawah district. Dalip Singh, the son of Sheo Singh, is the head of the old Bais family of Tiwaripur Salempur in Narwal. He owns four villages and two shares in that tahsil, one village in Ghatampur and three

shares in Cawnpore, including parts of Naubasta and Juhi Kalan: the area is 4,452 acres and the revenue demand Rs. 5,951. The once enormous estates held by the Chandels have almost vanished. The history of Rawatpur has already been given, and all that remains to the present representative, Rawat Sheoratan Singh, comprises the village of Naramau and half Panki in tahsil Cawnpore, one village in Bhognipur, and one village and two shares in Ghatampur, the whole amounting to 6,426 acres with a demand of Rs. 9,050. The rest of the estate, twenty villages and one share in Cawnpore, with an area of 11,975 acres and an assessment of Rs. 20,262, is in the possession of a Brahman, Pandit Raja Ram. The Rao of Sapahi holds six villages in Cawnpore assessed at Rs. 3,154; and the only other Chandel property of importance is that of Sona near Bhimsen station, held by Thakur Debi Singh and Sobha Kunwar. They belong to the Sheorajpur branch, and own about twenty villages in Cawnpore, Sheorajpur, Derapur and Billaur, in addition to one village in Fatehpur.

The largest Brahman estate is that held by Babu Kundan Lal and his brother, Balbhaddar Prasad, the sons of Debi Ghulam Tiwari of old Cawnpore. The acquisition of the property was more or less accidental; for the old Jajmau estate had passed into the hands of a woman, and Kundan Lal was selected as the nearest male heir, although his connection with the family was extremely remote. Subsequent additions have been made by purchase, and the property now comprises 38,188 acres in this district with a revenue demand of Rs. 46,592, in addition to Rs. 3,730 paid in Fatehpur and Rs. 500 in Jalaun. There are six villages and seven shares in Cawnpore, 23 villages and 13 shares in Bhognipur, five villages and one share in Akbarpur, three villages in Sheorajpur and one share in Ghatampur. The Chaubes of Bheewan and Sheoli, in tahsil Sheorajpur, are an old family who have acquired wealth and land by money-lending: they are represented by Jwala Prasad, Prag Narayan and Bishambhar Nath, the sons of the well known Sidhari Lal, who together hold ten villages and 14 shares in Sheorajpur and one small village and two shares in Akbarpur, with an aggregate area of 14,678 acres and a revenue demand of Rs. 19,371. Pan-

Brahman
land-
holders.

dit Dwarka Prasad, the son of Ganga Prasad Shukul of Dundwa Jamauli in Billhaur, who gained a fortune by similar means, owns 13,010 acres paying revenue Rs. 25,872: the property includes 18 shares in Billhaur, four villages and 13 shares in Sheorajpur, seven shares in Derapur, five in Akbarpur and one in Bhognipur. The old Dube family of Gopalpur in Narwal was raised to prominence by Ram Prasad, who bought up many of the Jaganbansi villages. The present representative is Binda Prasad, who owns sixteen shares in Narwal with an area of 3,771 acres and a demand of Rs. 6,500, and also pays a revenue of Rs. 3,127 in the Fatchpur district. The Misra Brahmans of Saibasur in Billhaur, headed by Sarju Prasad, the son of Baldin, own one village and eight shares in Billhaur and one share in Sheorajpur, with an area of 2,177 acres and a demand of Rs. 4,426, as well as land paying Rs. 993 in the Unao district. Among the Brahman landholders must be included Pandit Parsotam Rao Tantia, the son of Narayan Rao Nana of Bithur, generally known as the Subadar Sahib. The property was bestowed on the latter for his loyalty during the Mutiny and his abstention from the policy of the Nana Sahib. It comprises one village in Cawnpore, one village and three shares in Sheorajpur and two villages in Derapur, with an area of 5,343 acres and a revenue demand of Rs. 8,480, besides land assessed at Rs. 5,142 in Farrukhabad. An estate of six villages and one share in the Cawnpore tahsil, paying revenue Rs. 8,288 on a total area of 8,112 acres, is held by Rai Brij Narayan Gurtu, a *vakil* of the High Court, and Pandit Iqbal Narayan, a professor at the Hindu College in Benares. They are Kashmiri Brahmans, residing at Patkapur, and are the sons of Rai Indar Narayan Gurtu, who was a subordinate judge and the son of Pandit Kisban Narayan, deputy collector of Saugor at the time of the Mutiny. In that district he rendered excellent service for which he was rewarded with the hereditary title of Rai and a grant of land.

Kurmi

land-holders.

The largest Kurmi estate is that belonging to the Bibiapur family in Billham, now represented by Raj Kumar and Ganga Sahai, the sons of Bhimma Singh. In addition to the ancestral property, which is of great antiquity, much has been acquired by purchase. Raj Kumar holds one village

and 15 shares in Bilhaur and one village and one share in Sheorajpur, aggregating 5,660 acres and assessed at Rs. 9,016, and also pays revenue to the amount of Rs. 4,914 in Farrukhabad and Rs. 360 in Unao. His brother owns two villages and 13 shares with an area of 3,578 acres and a demand of Rs. 5,806 in Bilhaur, and pays Rs. 2,907 in Farrukhabad, Rs. 2,723 in Unao and Rs. 1,790 in Etawah. Another old family is that of Bhati Haveli in Bilhaur now represented by Radha Kishan, who owns 14 shares in that tahsil with an area of 2,916 acres and an assessment of Rs. 4,619, in addition to land paying Rs. 4,842 in Farrukhabad. The other great Kurmi colony is in Ghatampur, where the chief estate is that of Baripal, now owned by Gulab Dei and Ansuya Dei, the widows of Durga Prasad : it comprises nine villages and 15 shares, with an area of 12,050 acres and a revenue demand of Rs. 14,210.

The remaining large proprietors are for the most part ^{Other n}traders and bankers of Cawnpore. Among the Banias the ^{holders.}chief is Rai Kanhaiya Lal Bahadur, the Government treasurer and a prominent citizen. He is the son of Sidh Gopal, whose father Ram Gopal, an Agarwala, made a fortune by banking. Another son of the latter, Baijnath, was the father of Bishambhar Nath, at present treasurer in Jalaun. The property comprises 7,959 acres in different parts of the district, and is assessed at Rs. 11,181 : there is the village of Simbhuia and one share in the Cawnpore tahsil, as also two villages in Akbarpur, one each in Derapur and Narwal, and two shares both in Sheorajpur and Bilhaur. Another Bania of Cawnpore is Lala Balmukund, who has three villages and eleven shares in Bhognipur, with an area of 5,508 acres and a Government demand of Rs. 5,572. This was acquired by his father, Sheo Sahai, who was murdered by the ousted Thakurs of Malasa. There is a well known family of Kayasths in Nawabganj, now represented by Babu Raj Bahadur and Babu Sham Lal, both deputy collectors, the sons of Munshi Lachhman Prasad, a tahsildar. They own two villages and three shares in Sheorajpur, two villages and one share in Bhognipur and two shares in Akbarpur, amounting in all to 8,342 acres with a demand of Rs. 11,127. Raja Lal, a Kayasth of Lucknow, owns 1,421 acres in Akbarpur

assessed at Rs. 5,626—the remnants of an old estate. There are three Khattri families who have acquired large properties. One is held by Gopi Narayan, the son of Gauri Shankar and the nephew of Gaya Prasad, and Chhoti Lal, who made their fortune as shopkeepers and then as commissariat contractors: he owns four villages in Derapur and one share each in Akbarpur and Cawnpore, 2,467 acres all with a revenue of Rs. 3,950, in addition to lands assessed at Rs. 13,624 in Mainpuri and Rs. 2,396 in Etawah. The second was founded by Phundi Lal, for some time treasurer in Lucknow. His sons were Baldeo Prasad, the father of Lala Ganeshi Lal, and Jagannath, the father of Sri Nath, now treasurer in Fyzabad, and Bishambhar Nath. They own one village and one share in Cawnpore and one village in Narwal: the area is 5,351 acres and the assessment is Rs. 7,097. The third is that represented by Lala Debi Prasad, who succeeded both his father, Ganga Prasad, and his brother, Ajodhya Prasad. He resides in Moulegang and owns one village and four shares in Bhognipur, paying revenue Rs. 6,708 on an area of 4,798 acres. The only Musalman estate of any size is that of Saiyid Abbas Ali, the descendant of the notorious Nasir Ali, who acquired an immense number of villages by more or less fraudulent means during the early days of British rule. The property has been greatly reduced by extravagance and neglect, and one branch of the family is in very straitened circumstances. Abbas Ali no longer lives in the once magnificent house at Patkapur but resides in the Sarau district, his estate being under the Court of Wards. It consists of eight villages and parts of six others in Derapur, three villages and three shares in Sheorajpur, two villages in Bilhaur, one village and one share in Ghatampur, one share in Cawnpore and one in Narwal, the whole amounting to 21,559 acres with a revenue demand of Rs. 18,369. Mention should also be made of a Chamar *zamindar*, Kashi Das, who recently succeeded his brother Sanwal Das. The property was purchased with the proceeds of successful contracts in hides and amounts to 7,768 acres assessed at Rs. 13,195: it comprises one village in each of the tahsils of Sheorajpur, Narwal and Bhognipur, four shares in Akbarpur, two in Cawnpore and two in Ghatampur.

At the recent settlement the total area included in holdings was 870,675 acres, and of this 107,359 acres or 12·33 per cent. were cultivated by proprietors as either *sir* or *khudkasht*. The proportion varies in different parts of the district, being 15·8 in Bhognipur and 14 per cent. in Derapur, where the old cultivating communities are strongest, and dropping to 10 per cent. in Cawnpore and only 8·5 in Narwal, in which a large amount of the land is owned by non-resident proprietors. The area has greatly decreased since the preceding settlement when it was no less than 150,225 acres, the decline being most marked in Akbarpur where proprietary cultivation has dropped from 25,343 to 10,450 acres. The change is to be observed in every tahsil, though it is comparatively unimportant in Bilhaur, Bhognipur and Sheorajpur. Tenants with rights of occupancy, including the large and constantly increasing number of ex-proprietors in cultivating possession of their old *sir* lands, now hold 520,874 acres or 59·83 per cent. of the entire area. High as this proportion undoubtedly is, it is lower by 5,630 acres than that of thirty years before. There has been a marked decline in the Cawnpore and Bhognipur tahsils and a considerable fall in Ghatampur and Narwal, though on the other hand the area has increased rapidly in Bilhaur and Derapur, where the proportion now amounts to 66·4 and 67 per cent., respectively. Next to these come Sheorajpur with 62·4 and Narwal with 61·9 per cent., while the others are below the general average, the figure being 57·4 in Akbarpur, 56·8 in Ghatampur, 56·5 in Cawnpore and 52·2 in Bhognipur. While the old occupancy area has been reduced by about 30 per cent. the acquisition of new rights has been very extensive, and save in a few instances there has been no general campaign on the part of proprietors against the privileged tenants. It is probably the case that in certain instances, where the rental of an estate has been unduly inflated for sale purposes, the attempt to collect the nominal rent in full has led to resignation on the part of tenants; but this is not of frequent occurrence, and a more common case is where a tenant holds other land in addition to his occupancy fields, and is then subject to considerable pressure on the part of the landlord.

In every district, however, the disappearance of old occupancy lands has been fully as great, and in many instances much greater, than in Cawnpore, where the extinction of rights has been due rather to natural causes such as famine and sickness than to the action of the *zamindars*. With the exception of 24,279 acres held rent-free or at nominal rates, the remaining area, 218,162 acres or 25·05 per cent., is cultivated by tenants-at-will; the proportion ranging from 18·4 in Bilhaur to about 30 per cent. in Cawnpore, Bhognipur and Ghatampur. The area has necessarily increased with the reduction under the other heads, and really a good deal of the proprietary cultivation should come under the same category since about two-fifths of it is sublet. It is impossible to ascertain the total number of tenants, owing to the fact that the same man often holds land in more than one village, and still more frequently cultivates holdings of different classes.

**Cultivating
caste.**

The distribution of the cultivating castes corresponds closely with that of the population generally. Figures are available only in the case of rent-paying tenants; but these give a fairly accurate idea of the general situation, save that considerable additions ought to be made to the proportions filled by Rajputs, Kurmis and Brahmans, who constitute the bulk of the cultivating proprietors. Among the tenants proper Brahmans take the lead, holding 22·8 per cent. of the total area and outnumbering every other caste save in the Ghatampur and Bhognipur tahsils. They are not good cultivators, and their lack of energy is almost as great a drawback as the disabilities from which they suffer by reason of the law forbidding them to handle the plough or to touch manure, the work in their fields being generally delegated to hired labour. Next come Rajputs with 16·6 per cent., their numbers being greatest in Cawnpore, Narwal and Akbarpur and smallest in the Jumna tracts, though in the latter they have a considerable amount of proprietary cultivation. They are little superior to the Brahmans as husbandmen, but in Ghatampur they appear to be far more industrious than elsewhere, even their women taking part in field work. Ahirs hold 15·6 per cent., and are strongest in Akbarpur and Narwal. Though by tradition their calling is

pastoral rather than agricultural, they are cultivators of a fair order, and make the best of the poor soils in which they are mainly located. Kurmis cultivate 9·9 per cent. of the area and in Bhognipur and Ghatampur outnumber all other castes, while they are very strong in parts of Bilhaur and Sheorajpur, though in the southern Gangetic tract they are almost unknown. As husbandmen they stand in the foremost rank, being equalled only by the Kachhis who hold 3·5, and possibly by the Lodhis, who have 2·4 per cent., principally in Cawnpore and the northern subdivisions. Chamars are fairly common everywhere, though the bulk of them are hired labourers: they hold 4·3 per cent., mainly in the south and west of the district. The Gadariyas, too, belong principally to Derapur, Akbarpur and the Jumna tahsils and cultivate 4·1 per cent., and then follow Musalmans of various descriptions with 2·2, Kayasths with 1·4 and Banias with 1·2 per cent., while a varied and miscellaneous body of Hindus makes up the remaining 16 per cent.

Throughout the district the prevailing system is one of simple cash rents, generally assessed on holdings in the lump, but not unfrequently determined by a field-to-field valuation. The grain-rented area is quite insignificant, amounting to no more than 47 acres, exclusive of the alluvial *mahals*, to which this system is well suited by reason of the precarious nature of the cultivation and outturn. Special crop rents, too, are unknown, save in the case of some *pan* gardens and the tobacco lands of Domanpur in the Narwal tahsil. Consequently the rent depends mainly on the nature and the agricultural capacity of the soil, and few other factors exercise any direct influence; for although differences exist between the rentals of various castes it will generally be found that the best cultivators occupy the richest lands and therefore pay the highest rent, or else where valuable holdings are in the possession of the less skilled agriculturists, the rate is comparatively high and probably little lower than the true competition rental. There is of course a considerable difference between the rents paid by privileged and unprivileged tenants; but it should be observed that formerly those in possession of occupancy rights paid an actually higher rent than tenants-at-will, the reason

being that the former held lands which had been longest under cultivation and which therefore were more desirable from an agricultural point of view, since the increase of population and the pressure of the revenue demand necessitated an extension of cultivation which could only be achieved by the reclamation of inferior soil. The difference in the rates paid by the two classes is of recent date, and is due to the fact that while for various reasons the value of land has increased and the rent has consequently gone up, the enhancement of the latter to its true market value has been feasible only in the case of tenants-at-will. Indeed, the rise in the occupancy rental has been much greater than would have been the case had not the acquisition of rights in so large a portion of the occupancy area been comparatively recent. The enhancement of old occupancy rents has in fact been merely nominal, and the increase in the occupancy incidence is due solely to the accretion of new rights. Among the manifold causes which have operated to raise rents the most prominent are the increase in the value of agricultural produce, resulting in a general rise of prices, and the greatly enhanced value of the land due to the expansion of canal irrigation, which has not only rendered the district comparatively secure against seasonal calamities, but has also markedly increased the productive power of the soil. At the same time it is fairly obvious that the competition for land is greater than before, owing in part to the growing pressure of the population on the soil and in part to the many transfers of property which have converted former proprietors into mere tenants.

Present
rates.

As to the actual increase in the rent rates it is difficult to speak with accuracy, while the absence of reliable information renders it impossible to determine what rents were paid in the past. It is clear that the indubitably excessive assessments imposed on the district during the first half of the nineteenth century brought rents at a very early date up to a remarkably high figure; so high in fact that further enhancement could not be expected in the absence of any decided improvement in the agricultural conditions of the district. For a long period prices remained low, so that the only method of reducing the incidence of revenue demand

and increasing the aggregate rental was the doubtful policy of bringing inferior lands under cultivation. There are no figures to show the assets of the district in 1840; and the fact that the total rental increased by some ten per cent. between 1857 and 1873 proves but little, since it cannot be ascertained how far this was due to the spread of cultivation. It is clear, however, that by the latter year irrigation has been extended to a large portion of the district, and that prices were already showing a distinct, if not particularly paid, upward movement. At the time of the settlement the average cash rental was Rs. 4.32 per acre, that of occupancy tenants being Rs. 4.34 and that of tenants-at-will Rs. 4.27. At the time these rates were fully high in consideration of the natural capacities of the district, and as compared with those of other and more favourably situated parts. In the course of thirty years the rates have risen to an average of Rs. 4.99 per acre of occupancy holdings, Rs. 5.38 for tenants-at-will and Rs. 5.1 for the entire cash-rented area, involving an increase of 15 per cent. in the case of privileged tenants and 25 per cent. of others. Such a rise in rents can by no means be considered excessive, inasmuch as it is far less than the rise in the value of grain, quite apart from the improvement in the assets due to the great extension of canal irrigation in those parts of the district which were formerly the most precarious. In spite of the general increase in the rates it is probably safe to assert that at the present time rents, though still generally high, are more moderate than at any previous period. Probably certain parts of the district exhibit higher rents than others of equal quality, and this is especially the case in the Billaur and Sheorajpur tahsils. In these tracts the soil is undoubtedly superior to that found elsewhere and a large number of the cultivators are Kurmis, who at all times have paid very high rents and have doubtless been subject to the imposition of much more severe rates than could ever have been obtained from Brahmans or Rajputs. In 1870 it was considered that in these tahsils the rents were excessive; and that this is still the case would appear from the fact that the rise in the rental during the next thirty years was considerably greater than elsewhere. Another point

worthy of notice is that a large part of the area shown as held by tenants-at-will is cultivated by persons in possession of occupancy rights in other holdings. Such a tenant can doubtless afford to pay more for the additional land than he could pay if he depended on it for a livelihood, since it is worth his while to take it up provided he can make any profit on the venture; so that it is very possible that the recorded rents on non-occupancy tenants are actually above true competition rents, and that they therefore fail to afford an exact idea of the actual condition of affairs. The variations in the rental exhibited in different tahsils are such as to fairly represent the relative value of the several subdivisions. The lowest rates are to be found in the Ghatampur tahsil, where the average is Rs. 4·04 for occupancy and Rs. 3·98 for other holdings. Next comes Bhognipur with Rs. 5·19 and Rs. 4·22, respectively, both these tahsils showing a higher rate for privileged tenants than for tenants-at-will. In Derapur and Akbarpur the rents approximate closely to the general average, while in all the Gangetic tahsils this is considerably exceeded. The highest figures are found in Sheorajpur, where occupancy tenants pay Rs. 5·84 and those without rights Rs. 7·35 per acre. In Bilhaur, too, the rental is almost as high, the difference being due solely to the presence of much inferior land in the western villages. Further details of past and present rates will be found in the various tahsil articles. As to the influence of caste on the rental it must be observed that the unequal distribution of the different communities renders precise comparison almost impossible. In every tahsil the highest rate is that paid by Kachhis, averaging Rs. 6·57, and ranging from Rs. 8·92 in Cawnpore and Rs. 8·71 in Sheorajpur to Rs. 5·31 in Ghatampur. In the second place come the Chamars and miscellaneous castes, paying over Rs. 6 per acre: and it is almost certain that this high rate is due rather to their inferior social position than to the possession of any great skill in husbandry. At all events they are greatly inferior to the Kurmis, who pay Rs. 4·72; but the latter, although as general farmers they are without equals, pay distinctly lower rents than the Ahirs, whose average is Rs. 4·72, or even less than the Brahmans and Rajputs, whose rentals is as much as Rs. 4·85. This apparent anomaly admits

of an easy solution, for the Kurmis occur in greatest strength in the tracts along the Jumna and in the sandy valley of the Tsan, and while their rents in the latter are no doubt extremely high, they are necessarily much lower than those of the Brahmans and Rajputs, who almost monopolise the richest parts of Bilhaur and Sheorajpur. The Lodhs, who are mainly confined to these tahsils and to Cawnpore, and at the same time are admirable cultivators, pay on an average Rs. 5·09. The Gadariyas pay Rs. 4·55, a fairly high rate in consideration of the general poverty of their holdings—usually on the banks of the rivers—and the same is paid by Musalmans, who very often obtain favourable rates on account of their social position. Kayasths perhaps afford a clear example of the privileges enjoyed by social status, for the average rental of their holdings, which are distributed among all the tahsils, is no more than Rs. 4·16; but on the other hand Banias, who are cultivators of no ability and enjoy at least equal rank pay as much as Rs. 4·81, and in Bilhaur the rate for this caste is fully as high as that of any other, the reason as before being that their holdings are of a generally superior description.

Probably no district can exhibit in a more marked degree than Cawnpore the amelioration that has taken place in the general condition of the people during the past fifty years. This is due not only to the immense development of the city and its trade, which has resulted in higher wages and consequently in a higher standard of comfort among the lower classes, but also to the wonderful improvement in the fiscal condition of the rural tract brought about by the introduction of canal water in almost every part and the construction of roads and railways in all directions. Added to this a great change has been effected in the revenue administration, each successive revision of the settlement reducing the demand and enabling the peasant proprietors to retain their hold on the land. There can be no hesitation in saying that during the first half-century of British rule the state of affairs was deplorable. The old landowners suffered terribly from over-assessment and a merciless system of sale for arrears of revenue, which occasioned general discontent and reflected itself in the impoverishment of the

Condition
of the
people.

tenants and labourers. At the present time the district is still highly assessed; but there is a much closer relation between the demand and the revenue-paying capacity of the tract, which for the most part has a fertile soil with abundant facilities for irrigation, while the increased value of agricultural produce enables the cultivator to reap a handsome profit and to keep himself and his family in far greater comfort than was possible in former days.

CHAPTER IV.

ADMINISTRATION AND REVENUE.

Ever since the introduction of the existing system of ^{District} administration the district of Cawnpore has formed part of ^{Staff}. the Allahabad division. Under the control of the commissioner the chief executive officer is the magistrate and collector, whose staff comprises as a rule a joint magistrate, a covenanted assistant, three deputy collectors and a treasury officer, while frequently a second joint magistrate is added during the cold weather. Other magisterial officers comprise the cantonment magistrate, the eight tahsildars and three deputy magistrates in the Canal department; while there is a bench of honorary magistrates for the trial of petty cases occurring within municipal limits, and in the Derapur tahsil Thakur Gyan Singh has enjoyed third-class powers since 1865. Criminal appeals lie to the sessions judge, who is also district judge for civil purposes, the remaining civil courts including that of the judge of small causes at Cawnpore, the subordinate judge and the munsifs of Cawnpore and Akbarpur. The remaining district staff consists of the superintendent of police and his assistant, the civil surgeon and two assistant surgeons at the headquarters and Nawabganj dispensaries, two district engineers and their assistants, the various engineers in the Irrigation department, the agent of the Bank of Bengal, the superintendent of post-offices and the postmaster, several telegraph officials, the assistant opium agent, the headmaster of the high school and the staff of the agricultural station and college.

At the cession of the district Mr. Welland was appointed ^{Courts} to the three offices of collector, magistrate and judge; but in a short time the majority of the Regulations in force in Benares were applied to the Ceded Provinces, with the result that the revenue administration was separated from the rest and the combined offices of judge and magistrate were vested in a second officer. This arrangement was maintained till 1827, when the functions of judge and magistrate were

separated. In 1832 an additional collector was appointed for special reasons and in 1838 the magistrate was given revenue powers, but in this district the offices of magistrate and collector were not united till 1843. It should be noted that at first the district courts and offices were located in cantonments, but so many disputes arose between the civil and military officers that in 1811 the courts were removed to Bithur. The distance of that place from the city proved very inconvenient, and in 1819 the headquarters were transferred to Nawabganj where cutcherries, a jail and a treasury were erected. Of the subordinate magisterial officers the tahsildars date from the introduction of British rule, though their functions have been extensively modified from time to time: while deputy collectors were first appointed under Regulation IX of 1833. For the purposes of civil jurisdiction two *sadr amins* with very limited powers, and designated *mufti* and *pandit*, were entrusted with the trial of small suits their powers being extended in 1814, when their remuneration consisted in the sums derived from the sale of stamped paper. In 1817 the office of munsif was introduced for the outlying tracts, one having charge of Kanauj and Thathia and the other of Auraiya and Sikandra. The next year a third *sadr amin* was added; and in 1821 the powers of the courts were again extended, munsifs trying suits up to Rs. 100 in value and the *sadr amins* up to Rs. 500. Regular salaries were substituted for the proceeds of the stamp income in 1824, while subsequent changes involved the raising of the value of suits triable by *sadr amins* to Rs. 1,000 in 1827 and the appointment of a fourth officer in 1829. The arrangements were greatly altered in 1832, when the courts comprised those of a principal *sadr amin* trying cases up to Rs. 5,000, one *sadr amin* with powers as before and four munsifs stationed at Cawnpore, Gajner, Sheorajpur and Rasulabad, each having jurisdiction in suits up to Rs. 300 in value. In 1836 the munsifs, now five in number, were divided according to police circles; but in 1846 a fresh distribution was made, one circle comprising the city and cantonments, a second the parganas of Jajmau and Bithur, a third Akbarpur, Ghatampur and Sarh Salempur, a fourth Bhognipur, Sikandra and Derapur, and the last Rasulabad, Bilhaur and Sheorajpur. The munsifi of Derapur was abolished

in 1862, and included in that of Akbarpur; while the Sheorajpur circle was merged in Cawnpore five years later. Subsequently the number was reduced to two, the Cawnpore munsif having charge of the Cawnpore, Narwal, Bilhaur and Sheorajpur tahsils, while that of Akbarpur includes in his circle the remainder of the district. The principal *sadr amin* is now the subordinate judge. He was invested in 1868 with the powers of a judge of a small cause court in the city and civil station, these being extended in 1871 over all the Jajmau pargana: but at the present time the offices are distinct.

A military force has been stationed at Cawnpore since 1778, when a brigade of Oudh local troops under British officers, raised under the terms of the treaty of 1772, was removed to this place from Faizpur Kampu near Bilgram in Hardoi. After the cession the garrison consisted of the Company's forces together with a regiment of British cavalry and an infantry battalion. The cantonments were rebuilt after the Mutiny and now contain accommodation for a battalion of British infantry, a battery of field artillery, a regiment of Indian cavalry and one of Indian infantry. The force is included in the Allahabad brigade of the VIII or 'Lucknow' division. The affairs of cantonments are managed by the usual committee, which disposes of an annual income of some Rs. 60,000.

In 1801 the district of Cawnpore comprised the par-Subdivi-
ganas of Jajmau, Bithur, Sheorajpur, Bilhaur, Rasulabad, ^{sions}
Derapur, Sikandra, Bhognipur, Akbarpur, Ghatampur, Sarh
and Salempur, as well as Auraiya and Kanauj, transferred
in 1836 to Farrukhabad, and Kora Amauli, which in 1826
was made part of the new district of Fatehpur. In 1805 the
taluka of Bhadek was added from Hamirpur but was given
back to Kalpi in 1826, while in 1817 Tirwa and Thathia,
then belonging to Etawah, were united with Cawnpore,
though they were afterwards assigned, in 1836, to the district
of Farrukhabad. The internal changes have not been very
numerous, although a large number of transfers were made
for the purposes of administrative convenience at the first
regular settlement, of which mention will be made in the
various tahsil articles. The pargana of Bithur was

abolished in 1860, when it was divided between Sheorajpur and Jajmau. Sikandra was amalgamated with Derapur in 1861, the latter having received Mangalpur as early as 1808. Mangalpur was a *taluka* rather than a pargana: and the same may be said of Sachendi, Maswanpur and Majhawan, which were absorbed in Jajmau in 1807. Other minor subdivisions of a similar character were Deoha, a part of Bilhaur; Malgosa, included in Rasulabad; Sheoli and Sakrej, which formed portions of Sheorajpur; Bilaspur, which was merged in Sikandra; Musanagar, in pargana Bhognipur; and Akbarpur Birbal in Ghatampur. About the same time Sarh was united with Salempur, and this made a total of eleven parganas, as mentioned above, each constituting a single tahsil. The number was reduced to nine by the disappearance of Bithur and Sikandra, but no further change was made till the 1st of April 1894, when the Rasulabad tahsil was abolished, the area being divided between Bilhaur and Derapur, some villages of the latter, including most of the old Sikandra pargana, being assigned to Bhognipur. There are now therefore eight tahsils--Cawnpore, Sheorajpur, Bilhaur, Derapur, Akbarpur, Bhognipur, Ghatampur and Narwal, the new name of Sarh Salempur--each consisting a revenue and criminal subdivision.

**Fiscal
history.**

Although it is possible that the misery resulting from the admitted maladministration of the Nawab Wazirs of Oudh was somewhat exaggerated by the early British officials, it is certain that the Oudh government exacted the utmost that the district could be made to pay; and at the same time it is not improbable that the recorded revenue was more or less a fancy figure, the object being to give the most favourable impression as to the value of the territory acquired by the Company. If this was the case, however, it was not realised at the time, and at all events the early revenue policy adopted by the Company's servants proved little short of disastrous. The estimated revenue in the last year of Saadat Ali Khan's rule was Rs. 22,56,156, and it may be taken for granted that the whole of this was never collected. It was therefore incumbent on Mr. Welland, the first collector, to make certain that this assessment was inadequate before considering the possibility of an increase. Some enquiry was made, it is true,

but it cannot be ascertained on what basis the settlement was made. The general principles of assessment were that the revenue consisted of the whole of the gross assets, after deducting 10 per cent. as the *malikhana* of the person engaging, and 5 per cent. for village expenses, including the pay of the *patwari*: no account was taken of rent-free holdings and *sir* was rated at a nominal rate. In calculating the assets the only available material was the estimate either of the *tahsildar*, who received a percentage on the amount collected and was therefore not likely to err on the side of leniency, or of the *ganungo*, the latter being checked by the statements prepared by the *patwari* in collusion with the *zamindar*, and on the other hand exaggerated by competition between rival proprietors or the reports obtained from informers. Unfortunately for the people the season of 1801-02 was good, and that of the next year the best on record. The assessment was made after ascertaining the produce of the *kharif* harvest, and consequently everything pointed to an inflation of the assets. In addition the advances made by the Oudh officials were remitted and all the old miscellaneous dues were abolished, with the result that the proprietors were induced to agree to a settlement for three years on terms which rendered its success dependent on a succession of bumper crops. The total revenue of the district thus determined was Rs. 24,69,046. Troubles arose almost immediately. The *malguzars* complained, not without reason, that they had been deceived as regards the *malikhana*, for they were told that this had been already taken into account in fixing the demand; and it is at any rate certain that in many estates the revenue actually exceeded the gross assets recorded in the village papers. Then came the drought of 1803-04, and the whole fabric collapsed. The collector recommended the suspension of Rs. 2,42,184 and the remission of a similar sum; but such measures were useless when the population was in the greatest distress and many of the landholders had absconded, while no one would come forward to engage for the abandoned estates. Ultimately suspensions were granted to the amount of Rs. 5,28,787; but even then a large balance remained, and to remedy matters recourse was had to the fatal policy of selling the estates in default. Not only was the measure unjust, but it let loose a flood of chicanery and villainy on the

part of the subordinate officials. Within less than a year from November, 1805, as many 238 estates, assessed at Rs. 3,64,386 were sold, mostly to officials or their relatives and often for trifling sums, and at times, as was afterwards proved, without the former proprietor being aware that his land was to be sold or even that he was in arrears. The chief sufferers were the old *zamindars*, who in this district had engaged for most of the land, holding 1,599 out of 2,058 villages as compared with 168 settled with headmen, 251 leased to farmers, 10 revenue-free and 20 under direct management.

**Second
settle-
ment.**

In the meantime preparations were made for the formation of a second triennial settlement, and the *palturaris* were required to furnish estimates of produce as before. The Board desired the engagements of the first settlement to be renewed, but the collector, Mr. Dumbleton, represented that this was altogether impossible and that a substantial reduction was inevitable. The collector was then instructed to obtain the best terms possible, and under these conditions the revenue was fixed at Rs. 23,86,090. The decrease, however, was almost confined to those estates which had come under direct management and were a source of embarrassment to the authorities; while in the rest of the district the demand still pressed heavily, reports of recusancy were frequent and seventy more estates were put to auction for arrears. Though there was a real desire to mend matters, little could be done in the absence of any record-of-rights, together with an almost complete ignorance of the names and status of the persons who should have been looked to for the payment of the revenue. Mr. Dumbleton proposed that steps should be taken to establish a rental proportionate to the demand; but the Board, having no materials with which to judge of the real facts of the case, decided to appoint a commission under Regulation VII of 1807 for the purpose of superintending the ensuing settlement. Messrs. Cox and Tucker, the commissioners, found that the district was still over-assessed and had not yet had time to recover from the evils of the first settlement, the pressure of the existing demand being especially heavy in the parganas of Jajmau, Bithur, Salempur and Domanpur. Much difficulty was experienced in realising the revenue, although during the three years the balances amounted to no more than Rs. 1,03,290.

It is interesting to note that one of the objects of the commission was to enquire into the advisability of a permanent settlement, a scheme that was strongly recommended by the Indian authorities and would doubtless have been carried out but for the wiser counsels of the Directors. In the case of Cawnpore it was reported that, though the country was considered to be fully developed, there was not sufficient information available for a decision of such moment and that, at any rate, it would be best to defer the question for a period of fifteen years.

The third settlement was made for a term of four years. Quadren-
nial
settle-
ment. from 1808-09 to 1811-12, the revenue on this occasion being Rs. 23,16,301; though this includes the *jagir* in pargana Sikandra given to Raja Anupgir Himmat Bahadur assessed at Rs. 1,22,320, and as he had increased his demand by some Rs. 16,000, the reduction was not so great as at first sight appeared. Every pargana, however, with the exception of Rasulabad, shared in the decrease; but nonetheless 49 estates were sold during the currency of this settlement, villages assessed at two and a half lakhs were farmed in consequence of the refusal of the *zamindars* to engage and, above all, the real control of affairs was in the hands of as corrupt a body of officials as ever existed in these provinces. Nonetheless the settlement was a great improvement on its predecessors in its general working, for the balances, which were afterwards remitted, amounted to no more than Rs. 87,622; and the commissioners considered it merely as an arrangement for rectifying the mistakes and inequalities of the past.

The good intentions of the commissioners were carried Fourth
settle-
ment. out at the fourth settlement, which was made for five years from 1812-13 to 1816-17. The demand was now fixed at Rs. 23,21,683; but the increase was merely nominal, owing to a further enhancement in the Goshain *jagir*, the resumption of the revenue-free estate of Najafgarh and the transfer to this district of certain villages from pargana Kora. The work of assessment was entrusted to Mr. Newnham, but the principal task of that officer was the removal of the band of corrupt and intriguing subordinates, who for so many years had held the district in their hands. By the dismissal of these people and their relatives he at once opened sources of information which had hitherto been blocked up. "He proceeded into

the interior of the district and held personal communication with the people, but not as heretofore through the medium of the native officials. He seems quite to have gained their confidence and affection. He restored, where possible, many of the old and injured *zamindars* to their estates, and by a judicious reduction and equalisation of the revenue, and by a proper selection of representatives of the different communities, he formed a settlement which for a period of twelve years stood well and was collected without distressing the people.”* Mr. Newnham’s settlement worked well enough at first, and the subsequent difficulties that occurred could not have been foreseen. They arose from the financial disorganisation caused by the simultaneous closing of the Company’s cotton factories and the complete failure of the great indigo concerns, of which mention has already been made. The effect of the stoppage of advances to the cultivators was most disastrous, especially as the wealth that had been acquired from this source had resulted in the general spread of extravagance among the *zamindars*. Added to this the closing years of the settlement, which was extended under various regulations till the revision under Regulation IX of 1833, were darkened by the fearful calamity of the great *chauranawce* famine, which left a lasting effect on the district.

The
special
commis-
sion.

A notable occurrence during this settlement was the appointment of the special commission which was deputed to enquire into the results of the early revenue policy in these provinces. Its formation was largely due to the exertions of Mr. T. C. Robertson, judge and magistrate of Cawnpore, who brought to light the corrupt and irregular nature of the numerous sales of estates that had taken place in the past. He first made representations on the subject in 1818; but the commission did not come into being till 1821, when Messrs. Christian and Bird were deputed to conduct the enquiry in this district under the provisions of Regulation I of that year. The difficulty of the task was enhanced by the collusion that had existed between the office establishment at headquarters and those at the various tahsils, since the papers of 1803 and 1804 for example, relating to both remissions of revenue and sales, had been either mutilated or destroyed. A further

* Statistical report, p. 9.

proof of fraud was that the sales for alleged balances of those years did not generally take place till 1806-07, after the introduction of a new settlement, at which the assessment was made on reduced terms in many cases with the dependents of the tahsildars themselves and almost always to the exclusion of the former owners. The chief offenders were Nasir Ali, the collector's *diwan*, who had relatives as tahsildars in Bithur and Derapur; and Ahmad Bakhsh, the *nazir*, whose net was spread over Ghatampur, Jajmau, Sheoli, Billhaur and Rasulabad. In effecting these transfers every species of fraud had been employed, often with consummate skill. In 1813 Mr. Newnham expressed the opinion that 800 villages had been fraudulently taken from the old proprietors, and, though this was afterwards considered an excessive estimate, it is clear that the evil was very great. In the absence of a correct record it often happened that the sale of a share was held sufficient for the transfer of the whole estate, and thus many village communities lost their proprietary rights and were reduced to the position of mere cultivators. The commission also found that much confusion had resulted from the indefinite position of the *muqaddams* or headmen, whose status, originally that of a manager or superintendent, had frequently come to be indistinguishable from that of a proprietor. The investigation further brought to the front the need of an accurate record in the matter of the proprietary communities of *pattidars*, whose undoubted rights had been ignored hitherto owing to the difficulty of dealing in a single estate with a large number of owners whose individual shares could not be ascertained without a long and tedious investigation. The results achieved by the commission were very considerable, for 185 out of 405 sales by auction were set aside, in addition to two private sales and two mortgages; and at the same time the exposure of frauds practically put a stop to the custom of selling lands for arrears of revenue except in special instances. On the other hand, the costs of the proceedings were often so great that the real gainer was not the old *zamindar* who recovered his property, but the money-lender who financed him; and unfortunately the regulation remained long enough in force to become an instrument of disturbance to tenures which, however weak originally, ought to have been considered sacred because of their antiquity.

**Admini-
stration.**

The misfortunes that befell Cawnpore during the currency of the fourth settlement were aggravated by the frequent changes in the revenue staff. Between 1813 and 1823 six collectors had charge of the district, and one of these, the notorious Mr. Ravenscroft, held it for seven years. He was an extraordinary personality, as is shown by his remarkable literary style, his schemes for a detailed revenue survey and the establishment of model farms, and at the same time by his lax morality. Entering largely into rash cotton speculations, and being unable to fulfil his obligations, he did not hesitate to appropriate Rs. 2,74,853 from the treasury; and when the defalcation was discovered he fled into Oudh, taking refuge with the Raja of Bhinga in Bahraich, by whom he was afterwards murdered. He was succeeded by Mr. Wemyss, who in the course of three years brought the Revenue department from the lax administration of his predecessor and the enormous amount of arrears rendered it necessary to appoint a coadjutor, the first to hold this post being Mr. E. A. Reade, who in the course of three years brought the revenue department for the first time in the history of the district into a sound and wholesome state. He visited every pargana, remodelled the establishments and laid the foundations of the existing system. More than this, he managed to clear off the balances that had accumulated during recent years owing to the virtual abolition of sale and the futility of the milder forms of coercion. He urged on the Board the necessity of making some examples, selecting the estates of the most notorious defaulters, and obtained sanction to their sale with surprising effect. In other cases he recommended attachment under Regulation IX of 1825, and the application of this measure in a few instances had the desired result: where balances were irrecoverable they were struck off and, where they could be fairly realised, arrangements were made for their gradual liquidation.

**Regula-
tion IX of
1833.**

The revisional operations contemplated under Regulation VII of 1822 were never undertaken in this district, and the assessment remained undisturbed till the introduction of Regulation IX of 1833. This provided in the first place for a professional survey and compilation of an accurate record. The former was entrusted to Captain Abbott, who completed the work within a year of its commencement in

October, 1838. The preparation of the *khasra* and the demarcation of soils were also undertaken by the survey officials, though the work had afterwards to be extensively revised by the settlement officer, Mr. H. Rose. In the actual matter of assessment he first set himself to ascertain the adequacy of the existing demand; and for this purpose he worked out the revenue rates, a task for the first time rendered possible by the existence of a reliable record. In this manner he discovered that the average incidence was much higher than in any other district of the lower or middle Doab, and the conclusion he formed as to the severity of the demand was confirmed by the history of the collection of the revenue. Since the acquisition of the district no less than Rs. 20,26,000 had been remitted or suspended, giving an annual deficiency of Rs. 56,000. As, however, about half of this loss could fairly be set down to bad seasons he could not regard this test as conclusive, the more so as he considered that an excessive demand might easily be collected in a district in which so much capital acquired by banking and trade had been invested in land, and where a set of wealthy speculators and refugees from Oudh was always present and ready to undertake the management of even over-assessed estates in return for the protection afforded them. His conviction as to the severity of the former demand was based more firmly on the state of the district as he found it. Admitting the existence in the past of fraud on an unlimited scale, he felt that the extensive transfers which had occurred were due in the first instance to arrears, whether real or pretended and that in a moderately assessed district there could have been no occasion for arrears to any marked extent. Mr. Rose held that the main reason for the transfer of nearly three-fourths of the entire area in a period of so short duration was that the *malguzari* profits were not sufficient to enable the old proprietors to fulfil their engagements and retain their position, and that, but for the fortuitous investment of foreign capital in land, a reduction of the demand would have been long before forced upon Government.

In conducting the work of assessment Mr. Rose first framed circles, for the most part topographical, through the agency of tahsildars, and then he carefully checked the demarcation in the light of his personal experience. The next

Settle-
ment of
1840.

step was to fix the amount of increase or decrease necessary in each circle; and in determining this he took into consideration the regularity of the collections, the condition of the people, the fertility of the soil, the position of the village sites, the facilities for irrigation, the nature of the crops grown and the capacity of the cultivators. In all this he acted up to the established principles of the present day; and he went further in deducing differential rent-rates from selected estates and thus obtained fair revenue-rates for the various circles, discarding the rental when it appeared excessive, as was frequently the case and substituting the revenue-rate adopted for similar land in similarly situated parganas. His method was far in advance, not only of all previous assessments, but also of many that were carried out at the same time in other districts of the provinces. In equalising the demand he relieved the industrious and hitherto highly taxed proprietors, such as the Kurmis, for whom he showed his special sympathy, and made the idle and troublesome landholders pay his full share of the burden. But at the same time it was inevitable that such a policy could not fail to have unfortunate results in individual cases, and consequently he imposed a progressive demand where the increment was large and where the land had not fully recovered from the effects of the recent famine. The total revenue of the district, as thus determined, was Rs. 21,81,776, involving a decrease of Rs. 1,39,907 on the revenue of the fourth settlement; though from this should be deducted the sum of Rs. 49,467 assessed on resumed *muafi* lands, which were now made to pay revenue at a rate less by one-fourth than that of the rest of the pargana.*

Its
results.

Though no previous settlement had been conducted on such thoroughly intelligent principles, yet the experience of two years showed that Mr. Rose had over-estimated the recuperative power of the district, and had relied too much on prospective assets by including in the cultivated area all land that had been thrown out of tillage during the two preceding years in consequence of the famine. The new revenue was paid with difficulty: and at length it was found necessary to appoint Mr. C. Allen to revise the assessment, with the result that the total was permanently reduced by Rs. 32,326, while temporary

relief was afforded to the extent of Rs. 57,347. Even then the results of the new settlement were not altogether satisfactory. It is true that in the course of the thirty years for which it was sanctioned only 19 estates were sold for arrears and 23 were transferred temporarily in farm; but on the other hand private sales and those in execution of civil court decrees in the same period affected no less than 540,000 acres paying a revenue of over 13 lakhs of rupees. This means that 62 per cent. of the cultivated area permanently changed hands, though probably the reason lay not so much in any severity of the demand as in the demoralisation of the old proprietary classes, and in the purely speculative purchases that had been made by the non-agricultural classes in former days. There can be no doubt that the rigid system of collection, as compared with that in vogue in the days of native rule, tended to the ruin of the resident landlords, to whom punctuality and regularity of payment were formerly unknown, and who merely resisted payment when they had not the means to pay; but on economic grounds, at any rate, it is very doubtful whether the replacement of such persons by the industrious has been without its advantages. It has been shown in the preceding chapter how large a proportion of the ancestral holdings had been alienated.* Of course the result was due in some measure to the confiscations for rebellion, which were somewhat extensive; and in this connection it may be noted that, in 1840, the position of the *muqaddams* in the Sheorajpur estate was finally settled, these people being confirmed as proprietors except in nine villages, while elsewhere they merely paid a *malikana* to the Raja: and even this ceased after the Mutiny. Somewhat similar action was taken with regard to the Sikan-dra *jagir*, which had been left heavily embarrassed by Raja Narindargir at his death in 1840: it was decided to resume the grant, to substitute a pecuniary grant to his heirs and to carry out a *zamindari* settlement, which was conducted by Mr. (afterwards Sir) William Muir.

The sixth settlement of the Cawnpore district was begun 1868 in pargana Bilhaur by Mr. Halsey, the collector, with Mr. Buck as his assistant. Owing to the famine the work

Sixth settlement.

* *Supra*, p. 129.

was suspended in the following year : but in 1870 the survey which had at first been attempted with the agency of the *patwaris* was resumed by professional *amins* and was completed in 1872-73. The inspection and assessment of the district commenced in 1871-72, Mr. Buck dealing with parganas Bil-haur and Sheorajpur and Mr. F. N. Wright with Rasulabad. In the next year Mr. Buck inspected parts of Jajmau and Narwal, when he was transferred from Cawnpore, and the rest of the district was left to Mr. Wright with the exception of portions of Jajmau and Rasulabad, which were entrusted to Mr. H. F. Evans. Ghatampur, the last pargana to be treated, was finished in 1875-76 by Mr. Wright, who wrote the final report. Each officer worked on much the same system in the demarcation of soils and the formation of circles, the principle feature of the inspection being the extraordinary number of classes adopted and the elaborate nature of the circle rates deduced therefrom. These circle rates formed the basis of the assessment, and it is important to note in connection with this settlement that more reliance was placed on the assessing officer's appraisement or estimate of what the fair rent should be than on the rates actually recorded in the village papers. The corrected rent-roll of the district, including the figures for the assumption area, was no more than Rs. 37,77,988, whereas the valuation of the basis of the circle rates was Rs. 42,91,148. The difference is the more surprising because the three assessing officers concurred in the opinion that as a rule the village rent-rolls represented fairly the realizable rents. In several cases there was strong suspicion of concealment, but it appears unlikely that this was carried to such a pitch as the figures would indicate : and the Government resolution on the final report explicitly states that a mean between the two totals would in all probability approximate more closely to the actual rental. The revenue amounted to Rs. 21,59,365 or 50·3 per cent. of the assets, according to the circle rates, and 57·2 per cent. of the recorded rental. It should be remembered that at this settlement the share of Government was reduced from two-thirds to one-half of the net assessable assets ; and the reason for exceeding 50 per cent. was that it was accepted as a principle that where large transfers had thrown the estates into the hands of purchasers the revenue demand of the preceding settlement should not be

reduced, provided it did not exceed 55 per cent. of the annual value. The new revenue gave an all-round incidence of Rs. 2-8-4 per acre of cultivation, and though the rate was higher than in any temporarily-settled district of the North-Western Provinces except Allahabad, the assessment was accepted as equitable, if full, and was sanctioned for a period of thirty years. The date of expiry varied in the different parganas, Bilhaur coming first with the *kharif* of 1312F., followed by Akbarpur with the *rabi* of the same year; for Sheorajpur, Jajmau, Rasulabad, Narwal and Derapur the settlement ended with the *kharif* of 1313F., for Sikandra with the *rabi* of that year, for Bhognipur with the *kharif* of 1314 and for Ghatampur with the ensuing spring harvest. The cost of the settlement was heavy, amounting to Rs. 6,98,605 or Rs. 296 per square mile, and as the enhancement on the expiry demand was only Rs. 30,277 the undertaking was not directly profitable. In comprising this settlement with its predecessor, it is remarkable to note the similarity of method in assessment: the only apparent difference being that while Mr. Rose worked from the general to the particular, his successors relied mainly on an accumulation of particulars which they utilised for comparison and generalisation. The latter system was doubtless the more scientific, but it is open to question whether the actual results were more satisfactory.

Subsequent events showed that the assessment was too heavy in the tracts along the Ganges, Jumna and Isan; but with the single exception of 1880 the years following on the settlement were on the whole good, and no particular difficulty was experienced in realising the demand. The situation changed with the series of unfavourable seasons which commenced with 1891; and in the ensuing year Mr. Bird drew attention to the breakdown of the settlement in various parts of the district, with the result that reductions to the amount of some Rs. 8,000 were sanctioned for six years in 14 villages of Ghatampur, four of Derapur, two of Narwal and one in Akbarpur. The most striking example was the village of Nagapur in Narwal, where the demand of Rs. 1,300 was reduced to Rs. 500 and subsequently to Rs. 300. At a later date similar treatment had to be extended to other parts, and between 1895 and 1898 Mr. Trethewey effected reductions, in

Revi-
sional
measures

most cases for five years, to the amount of over Rs. 38,000. These were spread over 113 *mahals*, of which 33 lay in Ghatampur, 29 in Bhognipur, 15 in Bilhaur, 14 in Cawnpore, 15 in Akbarpur, three in Narwal, three in Sheorajpur and one in Derapur. In the parganas along the Jumna, with their poor soil and scanty population and a large proportion of the land in the possession of non-resident owners who did little to improve their estates, deterioration had set in as the result of bad seasons, *kans* grass had spread to an alarming extent and the land showed no recuperative power. Elsewhere the trouble was due to saturation, in consequence of the abnormal rainfall of several years. Mr. Trethewy considered the revenue to be stiff rather than oppressive. No fair impression can be gained from the returns of coercive processes employed in collection, though these were somewhat numerous during the currency of the settlement, amounting in all to 280 cases of attachment of immovable property and 32 of farm, annulment, transfer or sale. On this subject Mr. Trethewy may be quoted: "Putting special calamities aside, I think that the revenue becomes more difficult to collect every year. There is a number of indebted *zamindars* who find increasing difficulty in meeting their obligations. Many of them, it is true, deserve no sympathy: they are purchasers or sons of purchasers who have lost the land as easily as they got it. They have come to grief owing to their own faults, and are far from honest in their behaviour towards their creditors." On their expiry the short-term settlements were revised by Mr. L. C. Porter, who in most cases found a slight improvement which enabled him to raise the reduced demand by Rs. 1,930, the net decrease due to all revisional operations being Rs. 44,975. At the termination of the settlement it was found that the initial figure had been further reduced by Rs. 12,050 on account of land acquired by Government, while land paying Rs. 878 was restored to *zamindars* and Rs. 5,240 were assessed on resumed revenue-free estates.

ettle-
ent of
203.

A revision of settlement was decided to be necessary; not for financial reasons, since a considerable loss of revenue was anticipated, but to correct the inequalities of the former assessment. It was consequently laid down that as a general rule revision was to be undertaken only in those estates in which

there was reason for believing that the existing revenue would be varied by more than ten per cent.; though ultimately it was found advisable to relax this rule in special cases, with the result that considerably more than half the district came under treatment. The district was brought under settlement in the cold weather of 1903-04, and Mr. H. K. Gracey was appointed settlement officer. Rapid progress was made from the first and operations were concluded at the end of 1906, the total cost being Rs. 1,62,065 or Rs. 69.44 per square mile. For assessment purposes the village papers were almost solely employed: no revision of maps or attestation of records was attempted and the classification of soils made at the former settlement was accepted, while the recorded occupancy rental was taken as correct except in special instances of obvious inadequacy.

The procedure adopted in this settlement differed materially from that of its predecessor. The accepted rental, both in occupancy holdings and in the case of tenants-at-will, was considerably lower than the amount recorded in the village papers; and the standard rates were approximately identical with the occupancy rental as a whole, being lower by 17 per cent. than those actually paid by ordinary tenants, while they were generally below those in use at the preceding settlement. At the same time fallow was for the most part left out of account, and substantial deductions were made for improvements and for unstable or precarious cultivation, the area actually assessed being 480,235 acres as compared with 503,831 acres included in holdings. In this way the assets were admittedly well below the real figure: and this lenient treatment was carried still further by taking only 46.89 per cent. as revenue, while in the Bhognipur and Ghatampur tahsils the percentage was in most cases markedly less. On the other hand it was obvious that the state of affairs necessitated a moderate demand, not only for the reasons already set forth, but also because so large a proportion of the district in the hands of small proprietors and because in the last thirty years transfers had been very numerous, the area that had changed hands paying a revenue of more than seven lakhs or about one-third of the revised demand. Further it should be noted that while the reduction of revenue in the inferior circles amounted

to as much as 13 per cent. in the more fortunately situated tracts it was no greater than one per cent. The net result of these operations was that the revenue of the whole district was reduced from Rs. 21,59,365, as fixed at the former settlement, to Rs. 20,16,174.* This brought down the incidence to Rs. 2.26 per acre of the cultivated area; and though the rate was still higher than in the adjoining district of Farrukhabad it was now below that ruling in Mainpuri, and very much less than in Fatehpur to the east. Perhaps the most remarkable point in this settlement is that it gave the district a revenue which was less by 4½ lakhs than that imposed in the first year of British rule a century before, an assessment which may be considered as mainly responsible for the subsequent unhappy experiences of Cawnpore. It is of course impossible to form any correct or even approximate estimate of the real assets in 1802, but it should be borne in mind that then the State's share was 85 per cent. of the whole. In 1903 the recorded assets amounted in all to Rs. 38,43,012, of which the new revenue represented 52.4 per cent., while it was 60 per cent. of the actual collections as shown in the village papers. An assessment at 85 per cent. would have given a revenue of 32½ lakhs, so that it is at least clear that the district has materially advanced in prosperity and wealth in spite of the reduced demand. The settlement was confirmed for a period of thirty years from the date of its introduction.

Alluvial
mahals.

² Owing to the general reduction of the demand there was little need for progressive revenues: and these were imposed on 17 *mahals* only, of which 12 lay within the limits of the Cawnpore municipality. With these few exceptions the annual revenue is liable to vary only in the case of the alluvial *mahals* along the Ganges and Jumna. These were first demarcated at the settlement of 1870, when they were dealt with under the ordinary rules, though one or two, as for example Domanpur in the Narwal tahsil, were settled for thirty years on account of their comparative stability. At the last settlement the total number of the alluvial *mahals* along the Ganges was 86 of which eight were in tahsil Bilhaur, 21 in Sheorajpur, 41 in Cawnpore and 16 in Narwal. In most

cases they are of very little value, and the soil is seldom better than mere sand; but there are exceptions to this rule in the Cawnpore tahsil, where 25 of the *mahals* are semi-alluvial *kachhar* of a rich description, and some of these are assessed conditionally for the full term of thirty years. The only other tract along the Ganges where the area of culturable land is at all large is at the extremity of tahsil Narwal, in Domanpur and the vicinity. The *Jumna mahals* comprise three in Ghatampur, of which one is assessed conditionally for a long term, and 36 in Bhognipur, two of the latter having been similarly treated. The total revenue of the *mahals* on the alluvial register was Rs. 17,530 at the time of the settlement, while in 1906 it was Rs. 16,780 of which Rs. 12,712 was paid in the Cawnpore tahsil alone. The usual provision has been made for quinquennial inspection, the date varying in the different parganas: Bilhaur and Sheorajpur will come up for revision in 1908-09, Cawnpore in the next year and Narwal in 1910-11, while of the *Jumna* parganas Ghatampur will be dealt with in 1911-12 and Bhognipur in the following season.

The cesses collected in addition to the ordinary revenue Cesses. demand now comprise only the 10 per cent. local rate, which is assessed on the gross revenue and amounted in 1906-07 to Rs. 2,01,459.* This rate obtained the sanction of law in 1871, when all the old cesses were amalgamated as, for example, the roads cess instituted in 1840; the school cess, dating from the introduction of *halqabandi* schools; the *chaukidari* cess for the payment of the rural police; and the district post cess, first collected about 1838. Subsequently, in 1878, an additional rate of two per cent. was levied for famine insurance, but this was abandoned in 1905; and the ensuing year saw the abolition of the *patwari* rate, which had been in existence in its latest form since 1889, although before that date it had frequently been levied for varying periods.

Under the rule of the Nawab Wazir of Oudh the responsibility for maintenance of order lay on the *amil* or Police. revenue officer, but the farmers and landholders were held to account for the commission of crime within their respective spheres of influence, and their duties were performed, so far as they were performed at all, through the agency of the hereditary village watchmen. Efficiency depended

* Appendix, table X.

solely on authority and the power to exact obedience : and this in itself provided a check against arbitrary or tyrannical action. Petty criminal cases were decided by the landholder and more serious offences were tried by the *amil*; but civil suits had to rest on arbitration, while recourse was had to the *panchayat* in matters affecting caste or religion. With the introduction of British rule the old system was but slightly modified. The tahsildars were entrusted with the duties of police officers within their several jurisdictions, and were allowed one and a half per cent. on the collections for the support of an efficient establishment. As before, the persons engaging for the payment of the revenue were responsible for the preservation of order and the prevention of crime in their estates, while in the case of robberies the responsibility was shared with the tahsildar. This system proved most unsatisfactory, for the tahsildars failed to maintain an adequate force and there was little security for life or property. Even in 1806 the collector did not consider it safe to travel about the district without an armed escort. In the following year the tahsildars were relieved of their police duties and a force was organised under the direct control of the magistrate : a number of *thanas* was established, each having jurisdiction over a compact block of country about twenty miles square. The police, however, remained a very inefficient body, for few crimes were either reported or detected; and it was not till 1817, when Mr. T. C. Robertson was appointed magistrate, that any real improvement took place. He made strenuous efforts to suppress highway robbery and *thagi*, which were rife at that time, and he established *marhalas* or outposts, in the charge of three or four men, at intervals not exceeding four miles along the principal thoroughfares. The improvement unfortunately was shortlived, for the police rapidly deteriorated and, until the appointment of Mr. Caldecott as magistrate in 1833, the district continued in a state of general disorganisation. Matters had been made worse by the abolition of the old *chaukidari* system in 1824 and its replacement by that known as *rasadbandi*, whereby every cultivator had to contribute towards the cost of the village watchmen. This had given rise to the greatest abuses and continual conflicts between the landholders and the police *daroghas*, who

generally nominated the watchmen; the latter were often bad characters, in league both with the police and the professional dacoits, so that in a short time crime became more prevalent than ever. To remedy this evil Mr. Caldecott, who won the confidence of the people in a remarkable degree, determined to abolish the *chaukidars* altogether and, in their stead, organised a village watch with the aid of the *zamin-dars*. In each village a general place of rendezvous was fixed where all the inhabitants were to assemble on an alarm, while every night the village was patrolled by four of the able-bodied men. This somewhat original plan was actually carried into effect and lasted for several years; but it gradually dropped into disuse, and from 1843 the practice was resumed of employing watchmen nominated by the landowners and remunerated by a rent-free grant of land. Mr. Caldecott at the same time entered on a campaign against the dacoits which resulted in the capture of several important gangs and the effectual dispersion of many others, though often this was accomplished after severe fighting. In 1845 the police system was revised on an extensive scale. A large number of small and useless outposts were abolished and the *thanas* were made to correspond with the *tahsils*, the only exceptions being Cawnpore and Bithur, where the tract to the west of the Pandu was formed into the Sachendi circle. Besides the twelve stations, there were two outposts, at Nawabganj and Colonelganj, in Cawnpore, and 33 others in the district, with four or five men at each. The *tahsildars* were given police powers, and the general superintendence of the force maintained within the limits of their jurisdiction. These measures met with great success; but the chief obstacle of effective administration was the varied composition of the force, which was raised in various manners and subject to different rules such as the civil *thana* police, the military police and the cantonment police, the last of whom were subordinate in every respect to the military authorities.

This imperfect system was not remedied till after the Mutiny, when Act V of 1861 provided for the entertainment of an organised constabulary for the whole of the North-Western Provinces, with certain irregular police acting ^{Present system.}

in unison with it, the latter in this district comprising the municipal force at Cawnpore and the *chaukidars* employed in the towns, the villages and on the roads and canals. Subsequently, in 1877, an important change was made by amalgamating the provincial police with that of Oudh, a matter of high concern to Cawnpore as to all the border districts. Since that date the only alteration deserving mention has been the abolition of the municipal *chaukidars* of Cawnpore, and the replacement of that ill-paid and inefficient body by the ordinary provincial police. The reforms effected in 1861 were accompanied by a redistribution of the police stations and circles. The former included those in the city and cantonment, known as Kotwali, Anwarganj, Colonelganj, Nawabganj and Cantonment, with dependent outposts at Kalyanpur, Permitghat, Gwaltoli, Filkhana, Horse Artillery Bazar, Gillis Bazar, Naubasta and Sakatia Purwa, for the city and suburban area; and in the district one at the headquarters of each existing tahsil, and at Sheoli, Chaubepur, Kakwan, Rasulabad, Mangalpur, Sikandra, Musanagar, Sajeti, Gajner, Sarh and Maharajpur. There were also outposts at Araul, Barah, Dig, Pura, Kainjri, Tikri, Ahirwan and Kuankhera. This arrangement has since undergone several modifications. The Chaubepur station has been closed, and the outposts either abolished or raised to the status of reporting stations. At the present time there are five city stations, known as Kotwali, Anwarganj, Colonelganj, Filkhana and Nawabganj; one in cantonments and twenty-two in the rest of the district. These last are at Akbarpur and Gajner in the Akbarpur tahsil; at Bilhaur, Kakwan, Rasulabad and Kainjri in Bilhaur; at Bhognipur, Musanagar and Sikandra in Bhognipur; at Kalyanpur, Bithur, Sachendi and Bidhnu in Cawnpore; at Derapur and Mangalpur in tahsil Derapur; at Sheorajpur and Sheoli in Sheorajpur; at Narwal, Sarh and Maharajpur in Narwal; and at Ghatampur and Sajeti in tahsil Ghatampur. It is now proposed to reduce the number by making the Nawabganj station an outpost and transferring its rural area to Kalyanpur; by amalgamating Kainjri with Kakwan, making over the portions of its circle which lie in Sheorajpur and Derapur to those tahsils; and by abolishing Sarh, the area being assigned to Narwal, while a part of the latter is to be transferred to the Maharajpur circle. This scheme would give to each

thana an average area of 95 square miles and a population of 49,945 persons. It would still leave the arrangement somewhat defective from an administrative point of view; for several of the stations are situated close to the boundaries of the *tahsils* in which they lie, and this results in considerable inconvenience in the matter of subdivisional criminal work.

The distribution of the police force at the present time is shown in the appendix.* The regular civil police stationed at the *thanas* comprises 40 sub-inspectors, 60 head constables and 506 men, apart from the 14 head constables and 160 men employed as municipal police in the city and cantonment. Besides these the reserve comprises eight sub-inspectors, 21 head constables and 98 men; and the armed police, 260 men of all grades, includes the fixed guards at the treasuries and other places. The whole is in the charge of the superintendent, who has one or more assistants, as well as a deputy superintendent: there are also a reserve inspector, a prosecuting inspector and three circle inspectors. The town *chaukidars* entertained under Act XX of 1856 are 37 in number, and are paid from the usual house-tax imposed on the places in which that enactment is in force. The village *chaukidars*, of whom there are 2,758, are divided between the various rural *thanas*, and are now Government servants paid in cash from local funds. There remain the road *chaukidars*, 172 men in all, who patrol the provincial roads and are located in *chaukis* dependent on the police stations situated on or near the main highways.

The criminal administration of the district presents no peculiar features, and the crime is of the ordinary type associated with districts containing a great city and a large Thakur population in the rural area. In former days the tract bore an evil reputation for the turbulence of its inhabitants, and the task of repressing crime, and especially highway robbery and dacoity, was the hardest that confronted the magistrate. Moreover, the city was the refuge of countless criminals from Oudh and of numbers of suspects who resorted thither from other parts of India with the object of securing their retreat into native territory beyond the Ganges. The annexation of Oudh put an end to this

*Appendix, table XVII.

state of affairs and since that event the reputation of Cawnpore has improved immensely, so that it may now be considered from the police point of view one of the least troublesome of the large cities in these provinces. The riots of 1900 were of an exceptional nature, and the combination of circumstances which brought about their occurrence may not be expected to recur. Naturally there is the usual professional element in the city, which is responsible for a certain amount of burglary and house-breaking; but organised crime is rare. In the district the most common forms of crime are petty theft, burglary and criminal trespass, with its customary concomitants of affrays and grievous hurt. Every year a certain number of dacoities is reported; but these are for the most part of a technical nature, although occasionally a gang rises to ephemeral prominence: as, for example, that of the notorious Darab Shah, a native of the Bilhaur tahsil, who for years harried the Etawah and Farrukhabad districts and was hanged with several of his associates in the Fatehgarh jail in 1901. Returns of crime for recent years may be found in the appendix.* It will be seen that the preventive sections of the Criminal Procedure Code are liberally applied, and the beneficial result is illustrated by the diminution in the number of convictions which has lately been observed, although the visitations of famine and scarcity inevitably bring about an increase in the reports of petty crime. Cattle theft is fairly prevalent, but is of a sporadic nature and does not assume the organised form for which the northern districts of the Doab are notorious. It is generally attributable to Chamars, who either dispose of the stolen beasts at the nearest bazar or else slaughter them for the sake of their hides. The district is not troubled by any of the proscribed criminal tribes; but there are numbers of the vagrant and criminally addicted castes, such as Nats, Kanjars and Barias, the last being especially troublesome though seldom held responsible for the graver offences.

Infanti-
cide.

In former days there can be no doubt that the crime of female infanticide was very prevalent in the district, as was also the case in Oudh and the adjoining tracts of the Doab. No effective steps, however, were taken with a view to its

*Appendix, tables VII and VIII.

suppression till the introduction of the Infanticide Act, under the terms of which sixteen clans of Rajputs, inhabiting 177 villages, were proclaimed in 1876-77. The number was reduced in the same year by the exemption of the Jadons; but preventive measures were found necessary in many cases, particularly in villages of the Bais, Chauhan, Bhadauria and Sengar clans, on account of the abnormal proportion of male to female births and the high death-rate among infant girls. In several instances prosecutions were undertaken, though without success; but the continuance of surveillance proved most effective, and by degrees it was found possible to reduce the number of villages. The process was continued gradually, and by 1900 only five proclaimed villages remained, of which three were exempted during the year; while similar recommendations, not long afterwards accepted, were made on behalf of the two others, the Chauhan village of Mangta near Gajner and the Panwar colony of Dohru in the Ghatampur tahsil. It is probably the case that the crime, as practised in old days, is extinct; but though violent means are not employed, no amount of supervision can prevent the neglect of female children, and that from causes which undoubtedly suggest exposure. At the last census in 1901 females amounted to no more than 46 per cent. of the total Rajput population, and the real proportion is considerably lower, as allowance must be made for the number of males absent from their homes.

The district jail at the cession was located in the Cawn-Jail, pore cantonment, but on the removal of the courts to Bithur, in 1811, a temporary arrangement was made till the erection of a new jail at Gutaiya near Nawabganj, a short distance east of the present Orphanage road and south of that leading to Bithur. The building was of a primitive type, and as late as 1835 prisoners under different terms of imprisonment were mingled together, even those under trial being confined in the same wards as life convicts, while frequently no distinction was made between civil and criminal prisoners. Indiscriminate intercourse with relations and friends was permitted, and for some years at any rate the inmates were given a money allowance wherewith to purchase food. Extensive reforms were introduced in 1835 and subsequent

years, and the building was greatly improved. The prisoners were regularly classified, a standard dietary was framed and a scale of labour adopted: the convicts were employed either on road-making outside the jail or else in the manufacture of the clothing required in the prison. This jail was destroyed during the Mutiny, and after the restoration of order a new building was erected near Sirsaya-ghat, between the district courts and the river. It is of rectangular shape, and within are the several wards, offices and dispensary. The superintendence of the jail, which is of the second class, is entrusted as usual to the civil surgeon. The manufactures carried on within the walls are of the ordinary type, including cotton-weaving, oil-pressing and the production of grass mats.

Excise.

In the days of Oudh rule excise formed merely an item in the land revenue demand, but it was levied separately from the earliest time of the Company's administration. Taxes were imposed on the manufacture and vend of spirit, on hemp drugs, opium and *tari*, as at the present day; but the system of collection varied from time to time, especially in the case of country spirit, which has always supplied the bulk of the excise revenue. At first each shop was licensed separately, and the income thus obtained amounted in 1802-03 to Rs. 21,734, while the annual average for the next ten years was Rs. 78,895. In 1813, however, a change was made, and a distillery was erected at Cawnpore and worked on behalf of Government: it served an area extending to a distance of eight miles from the city, and the licensed vendors paid still-head duty as well as a certain sum daily for the privilege of sale. The rest of the district was leased to a farmer, who managed to secure for himself and his connections a practical monopoly for several years till, in 1822, the ring was broken up and the farming system abolished. The distillery, too, had met with a like fate three years after its establishment, owing to the facilities it afforded to the European soldiers of obtaining liquor; but it was started afresh in 1831, and in 1840 it was placed under the superintendence of the military officer in charge of the Sadr Bazar, so as to provide a more efficient check on the sale of liquor to the troops. The total income from spirit from 1813 to 1822

averaged Rs. 93,084 annually, and in the next ten years it was Rs. 90,185, while the average for the ensuing decade was Rs. 76,095, the decline being due to the general confusion into which the administration of the district had fallen at that period. It subsequently regained the old level, amounting to over a lakh in 1845 and the following year, but later figures are unfortunately not available. Outside the distillery area the practice from 1831 onwards was to farm out the various parganas to contractors, who were responsible for the supply of liquor in the licensed shops and had to furnish a substantial security. This system lasted till 1862, when the whole district appears to have been brought under the distillery system. Five distilleries were established, at Nawabganj, Rasulabad, Akbarpur, Derapur and Ghatampur, the three last being abolished between 1886 and 1888, and that of Rasulabad having disappeared in 1883. Still-head duty was levied on all liquor issued from the distilleries, and the license fees were put up to auction annually: the latter practice was abandoned in favour of a fixed fee in 1869-70; but the innovation proved a failure, and a modified form of competition was introduced in the following year. There was a separate contract for the supply of rum to the cantonment at a fixed duty of Rs. 3 per gallon, and this was raised to Rs. 4 in 1878. Other changes comprised the introduction of the modified distillery system in the city and pargana of Cawnpore in 1883, and a similar though unsuccessful experiment in Ghatampur in 1890 but in neither case was the practice maintained for long, though in 1895 the city shops, as well as seven others in the Cawnpore and Narwal tahsils, were settled with a single contractor till 1897: the monopoly was instituted in order to break a Kalwar ring, and served its purpose. At the present time the ordinary distillery system is in force throughout the district, the liquor being obtained either from the Government distillery near the old parade ground, built in 1885, or from that in Couperganj belonging to the Cawnpore Sugar Works. The excise receipts on account of country liquor are much above the general average, owing largely to the nature of the city population. From 1877-78 to 1886-87 the average annual amount for license-fees was Rs. 48,355 and for still-head duty

Rs. 38,823, while the consumption was 38,823 gallons. There was an immense difference between the figures of the first and of the last year, for while the rate of duty remained unchanged the consumption rose from 12,857 to 97,144 gallons and license-fees from Rs. 10,051 to Rs. 1,18,579. During the next decade still-head duty averaged Rs. 1,20,259, license-fees Rs. 91,221 and the consumption 95,679 gallons. The last ten years ending with 1906-07 have witnessed a great increase in the income, though the consumption has remained almost stationary. It averaged 100,921 gallons, while still-head duty brought in Rs. 2,21,208 and license-fees Rs. 1,55,550 annually.* There are now 184 retail shops, and the ratio of receipts to population is almost the highest in the provinces.

Foreign
liquor.

The statistics given in the appendix show that a large amount is obtained on account of foreign liquor, principally in the form of licenses. These included two hotels and two railway refreshment-room licenses, seven shop licenses for consumption off the premises, and seven, of which four are in the native quarters of the city, for consumption on or off the premises.

Tari and
sendhi.

Some Rs. 3,320 are received annually on account of the fermented liquors known as *tari* and *sendhi* obtained from the sap of the *tar* or toddy and the *khajur* or Palmyra palms. The right of vend is leased to a contractor, and the system has undergone few modifications. At one time each pargana was auctioned separately and in some years separate contracts were made for the sale of the two kinds of liquor, but at present a single lease is given for the entire area.

Hemp
drugs.

The right of selling hemp drugs is similarly leased to a single contractor, and the only change in the system has been the recent introduction of triennial contracts. The revenue from drugs has risen enormously of late years, though this rise has not been accompanied by any increase in the consumption but rather the reverse. The average receipts from 1877-78 to 1886-87 were Rs. 33,378 annually, for the next ten years Rs. 47,359 and for the last decade no less than Rs. 1,05,735. The drugs mainly take the form of *charas*, imported from the Punjab, and *bhang*,

principally from Bahraich and Nepal: that known as *ganja* is seldom used, though formerly large quantities were consumed, both of *pathar* from beyond the Jumna and of *baluchar* from Bengal. For the five years ending with 1896-97 the average amounts issued were 114·4 maunds of *charas*, 251·4 of *ganja*, and 686·5 maunds of *bhang* per annum; while in the last ten years the average was only 7·07 maunds of *ganja*, as compared with 121 of *charas* and 617 of *bhang*. The number of licensed shops at the present time is 126.

The consumption of hemp drugs is exceeded, relative-
ly to the population, only in Lucknow, Benares and Dehra Opium.
Dun, and the same districts surpass Cawnpore in the ratio of the revenue derived from opium to the total number of inhabitants. The system of auctioning licenses for the sale of excise opium was instituted in 1877 and has remained in force ever since, the only change of importance being the abolition of official vend at the sub-treasuries in 1901 with the result that license-fees increased rapidly. From 1877-78 to 1886-87 the average annual receipts from opium were Rs. 39,136, and the consumption 98·4 maunds. For the next ten years the figures were Rs. 56,746 and 127·3 maunds and for the last decade Rs. 57,292 and 133·9 maunds. There are at present 45 retail shops in the district.

Stamp duty has been levied on documents ever since the introduction of British rule. Up to 1824 the income Stamps.
thus derived formed the remuneration of the subordinate judicial officers, who were consequently paid in proportion to the work done. There was a separate establishment for the sale of stamps till 1844, when it was abolished and the right of vend made over to the treasurer, who received a commission of two per cent. The increasing importance of the stamp revenue is clearly illustrated by the returns, the average for the ten years ending with 1811-12 being Rs. 5,980; for the next decade Rs. 26,094; for the third ten years Rs. 45,033; and from 1832-33 to 1841-42 Rs. 61,744. The process has continued to the present day, for whereas the receipts during the ten years ending with 1876-77 averaged Rs. 1,34,063 annually, the mean income for the

decade terminating in 1906-07 was no less than Rs. 3,03,890.* Of the latter sum over 74 per cent. was derived from the sale of court-fee and judicial stamps, the increase under this head being especially remarkable. The rise has been most rapid since 1901, and it is probably not unconnected with the enhanced volume of litigation which accompanied the introduction of the tenancy legislation of that year.

**Registra-
tion.**

The registrar of Cawnpore is the district judge, and subordinate to him are departmental sub-registrars at the headquarters of each tahsil. Naturally the heaviest work is that of the Cawnpore office, amounting to nearly three-fifths of the whole. Next in order comes Bilhaur, while there is little difference between the others save that Ghatampur and Narwal are far below the average in this respect. During the five years ending with 1906-07 the average total receipts on account of registration were Rs. 12,493 annually, of which Rs. 7,432 were derived from the office of the Cawnpore sub-registrar, Rs. 993 from Bilhaur and only Rs. 301 from Narwal; while the expenditure for the same period averaged Rs. 6,754, leaving a net income of Rs. 5,739.

**Income
tax.**

Income-tax was first raised under Act XXXII of 1860, which gave place to Act XVI of 1861 with its more lenient rate of assessment. The measure terminated in 1865, but in 1867 a license-tax was imposed on trades and professions, replaced by the certificate-tax on all incomes exceeding Rs. 500 under Act IX of 1868. A regular income-tax was introduced by Act XXIII of 1869, renewed by Act XVI of 1870, which was levied at the rate of six pies per rupee on profits of Rs. 500 and upwards. This was abolished in 1872: in the first year of its operation 3,149 persons were assessed, and the tax yielded Rs. 7,67,657. Under the license-tax sanctioned by Act VIII of 1877 the sum of Rs. 61,029 was realised in the first year, and this remained in force till the introduction of the existing income-tax under Act II of 1886, modified in 1903 by the exemption of incomes under Rs. 1,000. Tables given in the appendix show the amount collected in each year since 1890-91, both for the whole district and for each tahsil as well as for the

city of Cawnpore.* During the ten years ending with 1906-07 the average receipts were Rs. 1,74,614, the relief afforded by the concession of 1903 being illustrated by the fact that for the last year under the old rules the total exceeded two lakhs. A peculiar feature of income-tax collection in this district is the unusual amounts collected by companies assessed on the profits of companies. These averaged for the decade Rs. 54,456, which is a much larger figure than that of any other district. It is but natural to find that the bulk of the tax is paid in the city, and the amount assessed in the rural tracts is relatively insignificant: it is highest in the Bhognipur and Billhaur tahsils and lowest in Narwal and Ghatampur.

In the early days of British rule there was no regular postal establishment, and the only provision for the carriage of the mails was the maintenance of runners between the principal towns of the province for official correspondence. Within the district the transmission of the mails to and from the headquarters was assigned to the landowners through whose estates the roads ran: and it is but natural that such a system should have proved highly unsatisfactory, papers from the outlying police stations often taking seven or eight days to reach their destination. An improvement was effected in 1834 by employing a staff of 38 runners, paid by the *zamindars*; but the latter performed their duty very irregularly, with the result that the runners frequently absconded and great delay ensued. To remedy this defect a cess of one anna per cent. was imposed on the whole body of *malguzars*, and by this means an efficient staff was obtained, the number being increased to 46 men in 1844. In the meanwhile the General Post Office had been established, giving Cawnpore regular means of communication with the headquarters of Government and with other districts. As yet, however, there was no local post and private letters could only be sent through the agency of the police, who were still responsible for the transmission of official correspondence. The practice, though for many years in constant use, was accordingly made

*Appendix, tables XIII and XIV.

legal in 1845, the postage being fixed at two pice per packet, while the postal clerks at the *thanas* were given an additional remuneration of two rupees a month. This plan proved very successful until the rapid increase in the bulk of the correspondence handled rendered it necessary to develop the regular postal service : and this was done in 1864, when a number of the local mail lines were transferred to the Postal department. The district *dak* continued to exist for a long time after this date ; but from the first it was intended to replace it altogether, save in the case of those offices which were considered necessary for administrative purposes, but which were not likely to prove successful financially. In this district the transfer took place at an early date, for by 1876 there were 29 imperial post-offices and only four belonging to the district *dak*, the latter being finally abolished in 1906. During recent years the number of offices has been greatly increased, and the district is as well supplied in this respect as any other part of the provinces. From the list given in the appendix it will be seen that in Cawnpore there are a head office and twelve town sub-offices, which do all the ordinary work of offices of this class, save that payment of money-orders is made only at the head-office, Anwarganj and Nawabganj. In the rest of the district there are eleven sub-offices and no fewer than 54 branch offices, the former being located at each of the tahsil headquarters and at Jhinhak, Rura, Bhaupur and Chaubepur, while the latter are to be found in every village of any size or importance. The mails are carried as far as possible by rail : the sub-offices all lie on or near the railway with the exception of Ghatampur, Derapur and Narwal, while even these are conveniently situated on metalled roads. From the sub-offices they are distributed to the various branches by means of runners, the old system being both economical and expeditious.

Tele-
graph.

The first line of telegraph was erected in 1855 when through communication was established between Calcutta and Agra, following the course of the grand trunk road. This proved of great service during the Mutiny, although there was not time to bring up reinforcements to the relief of Cawnpore before the disaster had occurred. This line was afterwards replaced by that along the railway, and the district

now possesses a good number of railway telegraph offices at the stations on the various lines. There is no Government office in the district, but in Cawnpore itself there are combined post and telegraph offices at the Cawnpore head office, Cawnpore West, Railganj, Collectorganj, Generalganj, and Nawabganj. Mention may also be made of the departmental lines of telegraph along the main canals.

The only municipality in the district is that of Cawnpore, Municipality, which came into existence on the 22nd November 1861.

Prior to that date there had been some form of local taxation, but it is difficult to ascertain its exact nature. Originally, it would seem, the entire station and city were included in the cantonment, and this is shown by the names given to some of the *muhallas*, such as Filkhana and Roti-godown, which suggest the purposes for which the sites were taken up. There was no civil station till 1819, when land was acquired for the purpose in Nawabganj outside the cantonment limits: but at all events the map of 1840, makes it clear that not only Nawabganj but also the city, save for the eastern portion containing the Sadr Bazar, were distinct from the cantonment and were no longer subject to military jurisdiction. The city was then under the direct control of the district magistrate, and the police establishment was maintained at the cost of Government. There was, however, a night watch of 184 *chaukidars*, the cost of which was met from a cess levied on the inhabitants, the assessment being determined by a committee of the principal residents in each *muhalla*, appeals lying to a head committee of seven persons for the whole city. The tax, which was most unpopular with the people, brought in about Rs. 10,000 annually, and of this sum Rs. 7,000 were devoted to the maintenance of the *chaukidars*, Rs. 2,000 to conservancy and the balance to improvements and other charges. Conservancy at that time left much to be desired. There were but six carts for carrying away filth, the sewers were generally defective and the house or subordinate drains so badly constructed that they often acted as mere cesspools. Private houses depended on their own sweepers, who emptied all filth into the large excavations in the suburbs. Sullage found its way into the streets, and we are told that before drains were made the state of the city

was disgusting. Such a condition of affairs was but natural; it is not surprising that the place was considered very unhealthy, while the many large excavations filled with decomposing animal and vegetable matter added to the general impurity of the atmosphere, matters being rendered worse by the narrowness of the streets and the congestion of the population, factors which cause grave concern even at the present day. In the beginning of 1857 the city was brought under the operations of Act XX of 1856, though the Mutiny arrested all progress and nothing was attempted under this enactment, which but slightly modified existing conditions till 1861. On the 21st of February 1860 the civil station was formed out of the western portion of the old cantonment, which was then made over to the civil authorities. The municipality constituted in 1861 at first comprised only this area and for some time the city was administered as an Act XX town, the income of some Rs. 45,000 from the house-tax being devoted to police, conservancy, lighting and watering the roads. In 1866, by which time the city had been included in the municipal area, a tax in professions and trades, generally known as the license-tax, was introduced, and this together with the ground rent for the civil station, and the taxes levied on bazars, *sarais* and *ghats*, appears to have constituted the municipal income. The municipality was reorganised under Act VI of 1868 and again under Act XV of 1873, which introduced the elective system, the committee then comprising six officials and twelve persons elected biennially by the rate-payers. The board is now constituted under Act I of 1900, and consists of two official, five nominated and 22 elected members, including the chairman, three being returned from each of the seven wards into which the area is divided. Since 1908 a covenanted civilian has been appointed chairman whose duties will be wholly confined to municipal work. The boundaries of the municipality were enlarged in 1866 by the addition of the Kursawan *muhalla*, formerly included in the cantonment, and again in 1888 by the transfer from the latter of a portion of the Sadr Bazar and of Harrisganj and Faithfulganj. A further extension was made in

1901 by taking a large area on the west including the villages of Nawabganj, Ghursemau, Gutaiya and the greater part of Juhi Khurd. Since the introduction of the license-tax many changes have been made in the municipal taxation. In 1874 a duty on boats moored within municipal limits was introduced, and this was followed two years later by licenses on hackney carriages in 1886 by a wheel-tax on vehicles and in 1889 by a similar tax on hand-carts. There was no octroi as in most other municipalities, since it was considered that such a tax would become merely a transit duty and would damage the through trade of the most important market in the provinces. The necessity for realising a larger income for municipal purposes, however, led to the imposition of octroi in 1892, but it remained in force only for six months, as the tax was shown on the representation of the Chamber of Commerce to be totally unsuitable for a large commercial centre and it was abolished, except in the case of animals for slaughter. In its place there was introduced a terminal-tax at varying rates on goods brought into Cawnpore by rail or river, with a similar export-tax save in the case of sugar, wheat, pulses, rice and oilseeds; and also a terminal toll at fixed rates per cart, hand-cart and pack animal, certain articles such as salt, fodder and *kankar* being exempted. In January 1901, in order to meet the additional expenditure necessitated by the drainage scheme, a house-tax was imposed on all buildings, lands and houses within municipal limits at the rate of Rs. 3-2-0 per cent. of the annual value. The old license-tax is still in existence, and is levied on all persons or firms exercising any profession or carrying on any trade within the municipality at rates varying with the annual profit, the minimum assessable amount being Rs. 350 per annum. The details of income and expenditure under the main heads for each year since 1890-91 will be found in the appendix.* Some account of the waterworks, conservancy and drainage undertakings of the municipality will be given in the article on Cawnpore city. These have been effected for the most part by loans, of which the earliest was that borrowed for drainage works in 1872, the sum of Rs. 2,13,000 being advanced by Government and repaid in instalments, the debt

being finally cleared off in 1889-90. In 1893 the sum of Rs. 14,50,000 was borrowed in four instalments to defray the cost of the waterworks scheme, the loan being repayable in 60 half-yearly instalments of Rs. 26,995. An additional sum of three lakhs was borrowed in 1901-02 and the following year on account of the sewerage scheme; but this was repaid from a loan of ten lakhs raised in the open market in 1903, when the tender of the Bank of Bengal at 98 per cent. was accepted: this operation was noteworthy as the first instance of resort to the open market on the part of any municipality in these provinces. For the extension of the sewerage scheme two further loans of one lakh each were obtained from Government in 1905, each being repayable in 40 half-yearly instalments of Rs. 3,656. For the ten years ending with 1906-07 the average annual receipts of the municipality, including loans, were Rs. 6,79,300, and the expenditure for the same period Rs. 6,87,000.

Act XX of
1856.

The operations of Act XX of 1856 were extended in 1861 to the towns of Akbarpur, Amrodha, Bilhaur, Bithur, Gajner, Musanagar, Rasdhan and Sikandra, while subsequently in 1873, Najafgarh and Narwal were added to the list. In some instances, however, it was found that the places were too insignificant and too poor to bear the cost of administration, and consequently the measure was withdrawn from Amrodha, Najafgarh, Gajner and Rasdhan, the last surviving till 1896. In 1909 the list was further reduced by the withdrawal of the Act from Narwal. There are now four *chaukidari* towns in which the usual house-tax is levied for the provision of watch-and-ward, the maintenance of a conservancy staff and for the execution of minor local improvements. Details of the annual income and expenditure will be found in the several articles on the places in question. The Village Sanitation Act, 1892, is in force in the Act XX towns and in Barai Garhu. The provisions of section 34 of Act V of 1861 have been applied to Cawnpore, Jajman, Akbarpur, Bilhaur, Sheorajpur, Derapur, Narwal, Ghatampur and the combined villages of Rawatpur, Maswanpur and Kakadeo.

District
Board.

Local affairs beyond municipal limits are entrusted to the district board, an institution which first came into existence in 1884, when it took the place of the old district com-

mittee, the latter having been formed in 1871 by the amalgamation of the various committees concerned with the management of education, roads and ferries, the local post-office and the like. The functions of the board, especially in the matter of finance, were widely extended in 1907, and its work is of a very miscellaneous character. The constitution of the board is identical with that of other districts, and the members include the magistrate, the sub-divisional officers and unofficial persons returned by direct election from each tahsil. The annual income and expenditure under the main heads for each year from 1890-91 onwards is shown in the appendix.*

The earliest information regarding the state of education in the district is that derived from the report of 1845. There were then only three schools classed as other than indigenous, namely, the free school at Cawnpore, formed for the use of poor Christian children, with a large addition of natives, supported partly by Government and partly by local subscriptions; and two mission schools, the female orphan asylum, dating from 1837, and a recently started boys' school, the total number of pupils in the three schools, being 345. The indigenous schools comprised 179 Persian, 280 Hindi, 16 Arabic and 58 Sanskrit institutions, with 4,274 scholars in all. Most of these were of a very indifferent type, without qualified teachers, and of an ephemeral character, particularly the Hindi schools, which were regularly dispersed at harvest time. The Arabic and Sanskrit schools were necessarily of a superior description, and some of the latter, notably those supported by the Peshwa at Bithur, had a considerable reputation. The teachers in the other schools seldom received fixed salaries, the average wage in the Hindi schools being Rs. 3-12-8 per mensem, derived chiefly from presents, while that in the Persian schools, obtained usually from similar sources, was Rs. 6-4-6. Cawnpore was not one of the eight experimental district in which vernacular schools were opened by Government, and no steps were taken till October 1855, when the tahsili schools were started at Cawnpore, Bilhaur, Narwal, Akbarpur, Rasulabad and Sheorajpur. These came to an end with the Mutiny but were reorganised in 1858,

* Appendix, table XV.

with the exception of Sheorajpur, while others were founded at Ghatampur, Bithur, Rasdhan, Pukhrayan and Sheoli. In 1859 the *halqabandi* system of village schools was introduced, 25 being opened at first; while in the following year a new tahsili school was started at Derapur, making eleven in all with an attendance of 643 pupils, the *halqabandi* schools then numbering 50 with 1,369 pupils and the indigenous institutions aggregating 361 with 2,936 scholars. During the next ten years rapid progress was made. The changes in the tahsili schools comprised the substitution of Khanpur for Rasdhan in 1863, though this dropped out of existence in 1867, and the disappearance in the latter year of the Cawnpore school, owing to the formation of a zila school which had originated as an anglo-vernacular aided school in 1861. Similar anglo-vernacular, or subscription schools as they were called, were opened at Derapur in 1863 and at Bilhaur and Akbarpur in the next year, as well as private unaided institutions of a like nature at Narwal, Ghatampur, Khanpur and Najafgarh. Grants-in-aid were extended to the latter in 1865, and others were started at Sangawn, Seoli, Bithur, Sachendi, Sheorajpur, Khamaila, Rasulabad and Mushta, though the last had but a brief existence, while Sheorajpur was closed in 1867, Seoli, Bithur and Sachendi in 1868 and Sangawan a year later. Female education was first attempted in 1864-65, when schools were opened at Cawnpore and Akbarpur, the number being greatly increased in subsequent years. Mention should also be made of the establishment of the Christ Church school by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in 1859, to which the branch at Generalganj was added in 1862, and those at Jajman and Begamganj in 1863, though these were subsequently given up, while the orphanage at Asrepur was maintained as before. Consequently in 1870-71 there was a zila school with 227 pupils; nine tahsili schools attended by 374 boys, 111 *halqabandi* schools with 3,423 pupils and 20 girls' schools with 315 on the rolls, all supported by Government; and in addition nine aided anglo-vernacular schools with 211 scholars, five mission institutions with 762 boys and girls, and 185 unaided indigenous schools with a nominal attendance of 2,290—the total number of persons under instruction being 7,602. Between 1870 and 1880 a

number of changes took place. The anglo-vernacular schools at Khamaila and Najafgarh were closed in 1871 and the rest, with the exception of Derapur and Khanpur which survived for a few years, followed in 1874. The tahsili schools, however, were increased by the addition of Sachendi and Kursi in 1872 and that at Generalganj in 1874. Municipal schools were instituted at Cawnpore in the latter year and have ever since been maintained. In 1880-81 the effects of the recent famine were still visible, for the attendance at the high school was only 129 though that at the twelve tahsili or pargana schools was 631, and that at the 166 *halqabandi* schools 5,438. There were four municipal schools with 190 pupils at Cawnpore, six girls' schools with 118 on the rolls and two Persian schools at Akbarpur and Derapur with 88 scholars. The mission schools remained as before and there are no returns for indigenous institutions, which had greatly declined in number owing to the increase in the Government village schools. The constitution of the district board caused a change in the management of the schools, hitherto undertaken by a district committee; but the only important innovation in the system of management as that of allotting grants-in-aid to indigenous schools, which were thus brought in some measure under the control of the local authorities. In 1896 the Christ Church school was raised to the status of a college and affiliated to the Allahabad University. By 1900-01 the educational institutions comprised the district high school with 256 pupils, eight tahsili schools with 1,197 on the rolls and 119 *halqabandi* schools for boys and four for girls, with 5,446 and 72 scholars, respectively. Further, there were 64 primary schools aided by the district board with an attendance of 1,653; 283 indigenous schools with 3,785 pupils, including two girls' schools; seven schools with 275 pupils supported by the municipality and 16 aided by the same body, these comprising the mission and other schools, with a total of 1,079 on the rolls. The annual returns for each year since 1896, as well as a list of the schools in the district in 1907, will be found in the appendix.* Those in the city are shown separately: they are variously managed, but most of them receive a grant from the municipality. In the district there are middle vernacular

* Appendix, table XVIII, *et seq.*

schools at each of the tahsil headquarters except Derapur, the place of which is taken by one at Kainjri; 59 upper and 92 lower primary district boards schools; six lower primary schools for girls; 69 aided schools for boys and 21 for girls; as well as a considerable but constantly varying number of indigenous schools, maintained principally for special education in Arabic or Sanscrit. The girls' schools are located at Rura and Gahlon in tahsil Akbarpur, at Mangalpur in Derapur at Sheoli and Kashipur in Sheorajpur and at Patara in Ghatampur. The attendance is small, for there is little desire for female education: a certain number of girls attend the ordinary village schools, but they are removed at the age of eight, before they have made much progress in learning.

Literacy.

To some extent the progress of education is illustrated by the returns of literacy compiled at each successive census. These show a constant improvement since 1872, when 5·2 per cent. of the male population were able to read and write, the proportion being almost the same in the case of both Hindus and Musalmans. The figure rose to 6·7 in 1881, and to 7·1 ten years later; while in 1901 it was 7·2 per cent., this being well above the provincial average though exceeded in nine districts. Female education has taken even more rapid strides, for in 1872 only four women or girls were returned as literate, though this is obviously inaccurate in view of the fact that the educational returns of that year show 326 girls in the recognised schools. In 1881 the proportion was ·14 per cent., and this rose to ·23 in 1891 and to ·39 per cent. at the last census, a result which was surpassed only in seven districts. Female education is far more popular among Musalmans than with Hindus, for the former show an average of ·67 per cent. as compared with only ·17 in the case of the latter, the one being as much above as the other is below the general figure for the province. A similar though smaller difference occurs with regard to males, since 6·9 per cent. of the Hindus and 7·4 per cent. of the Musalmans can read and write, the reasons being no doubt that the Muhammadan population chiefly affects the towns, and that the rural Hindu community exhibit little desire for education. This is shown by the returns for selected castes, for while the proportion of literate persons to the whole number of males is no less than 55·8 per cent. in the case of Kayasths, the figures for Kachhis and

Chamars are only '68 and '14 per cent. respectively. The difference between the city and the rural tracts too is evident from the existence of a proportion of 15·2 per cent. of literate males in the former. As is the case in the neighbouring districts, 72 per cent. of the literate population were acquainted with the Nagri script only, 12 per cent., mainly Musalmans, with the Persian, and 6 per cent. with both, the remainder knowing English or other languages.

A medical officer appears to have been stationed at Cawn-Dispensary from the first formation of the district, but it is not known at what date the first public dispensary was established. By 1840 at all events there was a Government dispensary in the city, on the same site as that occupied by the existing Prince of Wales Hospital, the name given to the *sadar* dispensary in commemoration of the visit of His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales in 1877. This hospital was subsequently enlarged by the addition of a separate building for women, which was completed in 1893 at a cost of some Rs. 37,000, and again in 1904 by the erection of a hospital for Europeans. Between 1860 and 1865 branch dispensaries were established at Generalganj and Nawabganj within municipal limits and at Ghatampur, Bhognipur and Derapur, while subsequent additions have been the dispensaries opened at Bithur in 1881 at Bilhaur and Akbarpur in 1890 and the Rasdhan dispensary at Sheorajpur in 1893. The Bhognipur dispensary was moved to Pukhrayan in 1901. All these are under the management of the district board with the exception of the female hospital, administered by the committee of the Dufferin Fund, while the executive control is vested in the civil surgeon. The average annual attendance at these dispensaries during the five years ending with 1907 was 97,989, exclusive of 9,318 persons treated annually at the female hospital : and the growth of their popularity is illustrated by the steady increase in the number of patients, the combined total rising from 96,726 in 1902 to 124,215 five years later. In addition to the above there is a canal dispensary at Cawnpore, five railway dispensaries and the usual police hospital, in addition to the station hospital in the cantonment.

The district board realises a considerable income from Cattle-cattle-pounds, of which there is a large number. In most pounds.

cases they have been in existence for about fifty years, though of late several new pounds have been added. At the present time they are located at each of the rural police stations and also at the villages of Rura and Rasdhan. The management of the pounds was formerly vested in the district magistrate, who retained in his own hands both the control and the disposal of the funds till 1892, when they were made over to the district board. The average net income derived from these institutions during the five years ending with 1906-07 was Rs. 9,156, the cost of maintenance being Rs. 4,663 and the gross receipts Rs. 13,819.* This shows a considerable improvement on the returns of the first ten years of the board's management, when the average amount actually credited to the board was Rs. 7,331 annually. A municipal pound was started at Cawnpore in 1884, and this brings in a sum of about Rs. 1,000 per annum; and there are two pounds in cantonments, at Laldiggi and Mirpur, the income from which amounts to some Rs. 1,350 and is administered by the cantonment committee.

Nazul.

The only important *nazul* properties are situated in the city, where they comprise an area of 310 acres. With the exception of some 60 acres the whole is now occupied by buildings erected by tenants who pay a fixed ground-rent, now amounting to Rs. 22,519 per annum, which is credited to municipal funds. There are two main blocks, one between the Oudh and Rohilkhand railway station and Anwar-ganj where the principal tenants are the Sugar Works, Cotton Mills, and the Flour Mills; and the other to the north of the city in the old cantonment, where the largest areas are rented by the Muir Mills, Woollen Mills, Victoria Mills and the Cycle Company. Outside the city the *nazul* land consists of various plots of land, tanks and groves, for the rent of which trifling amounts are realised. There is also a small income from weighment dues levied at the Collectorganj bazar in Bithur; but the total receipts from extra-municipal *nazul* do not exceed Rs. 320 annually. Its management is for the most part entrusted to the district board, though in one or two instances the administration has remained in the hands of the collector. The history of the intra-municipal *nazul*

* Appendix, tables XV and XVI.

began in 1860, when the new civil station was formed out of the western portion of the old cantonment, and sanction was given to the collection of a ground-rent at a rate ranging from Rs. 15 to Rs. 20 per acre to be paid by house-proprietors in order to defray the expenses of clearing away ruins and laying out a new station, and also, while asserting the Government's right to the land, to establish a permanent local fund for repairs and the like. The imposition of this rent resulted in many petitions from the old proprietors on the score of an excessive valuation, but without avail, and a further rent-paying area was added to the civil station in 1867, including the Kursawan *muhalla*. The nature of the ground-rent, however, remained in dispute till 1901, when it was clearly laid down that the payments were of the nature of a rent and not a tax, thus removing all claims for exemption from the license-tax in force throughout the municipality.

CHAPTER V.

HISTORY.

Of the early history of the district we know practically nothing. As will be mentioned in the article on that place, Bithur is the traditional scene of the fight between Rama and his unrecognised sons, and it is certainly curious that bronze arrow and spear heads belonging to a very early epoch should have been found both at Ramel near Bithur and on the opposite bank of the Ganges near Bangarmau. There are no ascertained Buddhist remains in the district, though indeed there is perhaps no other part of the United Provinces concerning which so little is on record in the archæological field, in spite of the existence of so many sites of undoubted antiquity. General Cunningham heard of the ancient town of Kakupur and the existence there of large bricks, but never had an opportunity of visiting the place.* Jajmau possesses much of real interest and the immense fort mound overhanging the Ganges would doubtless repay exploration, since the bricks and debris extend fully forty feet below the surface. The place is mentioned by the historian Albiruni as a stage on the road from Kanauj to Prayag, so that it was well known in the tenth century; but it is as yet impossible to ascertain anything definite concerning its history, local tradition making it the capital of a mythical Raja called Jijat and also of Chandravarmma, the first of the Chandels.† Other ancient sites are Musanagar on the Jumna and Harpura near Makanpur, as well as innumerable old mounds which are popularly ascribed to the Meos.

These Meos appear to be the most ancient inhabitants of the district, and the traditions of Rajput and Musalman immigration almost invariably contain a reference to the subjugation of these aborigines, especially in the central and western portions. For centuries the Meos appear to have

* C.A.S.R., I. p. 295. 1 † E.H.I., I, p. 54.

remained almost independent in their fastnesses along the ravines of the Sengar and Jumna. One of their principal forts was at Kumbhi on the former river in Akbarpur; and others were at Kukchi and Rahaniapur in the same tahsil, and at Mawar, Shahpur, Teonga and Umargarh or Musanagar in Bhognipur. Nominally no doubt they were subject to the kings of Kanauj, though the sway of the latter was probably effective only in the tracts adjoining the capital and within reach of the Ganges. Of Kanauj itself surprisingly little is known, though it was clearly of importance in the second century B.C.* It rose to a pre-eminent position in the days of Harsha about 612 A.D., and from that time forward was the seat of a monarchy till its conquest and destruction by Shahab-ud-din Ghori in 1193. It is possible that the place may have been a city of the Gupta empire, and the influence of that dynasty is undoubtedly to be seen in the architecture of some of the ancient temples in the south of this district.

These bear witness to a very early Hindu civilisation which popular legend associates with the Gautam Rajas of Argal, a principality which is without question of unusual antiquity. The proximity of Kanauj may well account for the comparatively early settlement of several of the Rajput clans in various parts of the district, though it is difficult to say whether any of these actually took place much before the Muhamminadan conquest.

Old brick
temples.

The ancient brick temples mentioned above are found mainly along the course of the Rind, and tradition states that there was a temple at every *kos* along this river. As a matter of fact the dates range over a very wide period, the temple of Bhitargaon, which in its decoration resembles the plinth of the Nirvana temple of Kasia in Gorakhpur, dating back at least to the epoch of the Guptas, and possibly to that of the Kushans. The others are of a different style, presenting generally the same appearance as the ordinary Hindu temple of the *sikhara* type, consisting of a small porch leading to a square *cella* covered with a double dome and surmounted by a single tower. The plan is either polygonal or square with recessed corners, though in some instances the polygon rests on a circular plinth; and occasionally the porch is built of

* J.R.A.S., 1909, p. 765.

stone, and the shrine is covered over by a stone ceiling of overlapping slabs, supported on four corner pilasters of the same material. In all these temples the predominant feature is the employment of carved brick covering the entire surface. Such brickwork was extensively used in the plains of northern India, owing to the absence of stone, and many of the most famous buildings, whether Hindu or Buddhist, at the time of the Musalman invasion were built entirely of this material, the decoration being obtained by carved and moulded bricks or by terra-cotta ornaments. The ancient brickwork in this district and Fatehpur is important not only because of the small number and ruinous state of the brick monuments now extant, but also because these temples are almost the only specimens in these provinces which retain their original shape and ornamentation.* The relative dates of the various buildings may be determined generally by the character of the brick work, since in the later temples, which belong to the ninth or tenth centuries, the bricks are much smaller than those at Bhitargaon. In every case the main structure is built of bricks laid in mud mortar, and in all probability there was a thin outer covering of plaster: the latter has generally disappeared and the exposure of the core has led to very rapid decay, so that the temples are often mere piles of loose bricks gradually crumbling away. The employment of the Hindu arch with the bricks placed end to end instead of face to face results in structural weakness, and this was probably the reason for the adoption of stone doorways and ceilings in the later buildings. Unfortunately this improvement proved even more disastrous; for the stone has been stolen in almost every case, so that the porches have invariably collapsed, the fall of that at Bhitargaon having occurred since 1880.

The village of Bhitargaon or Bhitrigaon stands in $26^{\circ} 12'$ ^{Bhitarg} N. and $80^{\circ} 16'$ ^{gaon.} E. on the road from Narwal to Ghatampur, seven miles beyond Sarh and about three miles west from the Rind. Its difficulty of access has doubtless contributed to the preservation of perhaps the oldest brick temple in existence and a unique specimen of the brick architecture of the early Gupta period. The building was inspected by General Cunningham, who described it as a square with the corners

* C.A.S.R., XI, p. 42.

indented, the total length, including the porch, being 47 feet and the breadth $36\frac{1}{2}$ feet. It is built throughout of large bricks $18 \times 9 \times 3$ inches, set in mud mortar. A flight of six steps leads to a small chamber, 8 feet by $7\frac{1}{4}$ feet, and thence a passage eight feet in length leads to the central shrine, 15 feet square, the thickness of the walls being about eight feet. The passage is roofed with a semi-circular vault, and the rooms have pointed arches. Above the main shrine is a second square chamber, also with a pointed vault. The upper part of the temple was intact till about 1850, when it was struck by lightning, and the porch collapsed probably in 1894. On the outside the temple is decorated with carved brickwork and numerous terra-cotta panels of skilful workmanship. Some repairs were carried out in 1905, under the superintendence of a subordinate official, and at present the body of the temple is covered up to the cornice with a thick coat of white plaster. This is no doubt useful as a preservative, but the building demands careful reparation under proper supervision.

Other
temples.

Two miles to the north of Bhitargaon is the village of Parauli, which possesses a mediæval brick temple, though about one-half of it has fallen down. The rest is in fair preservation, showing that it was originally a polygon of sixteen sides, standing on a circular plinth. The building is $13\frac{1}{3}$ feet in diameter, each of the sides being 2 feet 5 inches in length while within is a circular chamber, $6\frac{2}{3}$ feet in diameter, covered by a pointed dome and surmounted by a second chamber of similar shape.* Outside the whole surface is richly decorated with deeply cut ornaments in perpendicular lines. There were also two old temples at Rar, a village on the Ghatampur distributary some five miles due south of Bhitargaon, of which the larger, now demolished, was decorated in the same style as Parauli, and was of approximately the same date; externally it was $18\frac{1}{2}$ feet long by $12\frac{1}{2}$ feet broad or, with the portico, 17 feet, while within a narrow passage led to a chamber $10\frac{1}{2}$ feet broad by six feet in depth. A small temple is also to be found at Simbhua, where the Hamirpur road crosses the Rind: but this in its present state is of little interest, as it is thickly covered with

* C.A.S.R., XI, p. 46.

plaster. Much more important however is the temple between the villages of Behta and Bhadeona in the Ghatampur tahsil, which closely resembles that of Bhitargaon in size and ornamentation though the outside is thickly covered with whitewash. At Kohra on the Non in Ghatampur is a similar but smaller temple, of which half has collapsed, and another is to be seen in the neighbouring village of Amauli. A fine temple of the later type is still standing at Karchulipur on the Rind, to the south of Sarh.

Despite the close proximity of the two important posts of Kanauj and Kalpi, the references to this district in the annals of early Muhammadan rule are extremely meagre, and all that we know is derived from the histories of those two places and Etawah. As far as can be ascertained the area was generally divided between these three commands, but there was no strict delimitation of boundaries and the extent of a province depended mainly on the personal characteristics of its governor. In early days however the division of the country was still more vague, and it would seem that the rule of a Musalman governor merely extended as far as his effective influence from his headquarters. The conquest of Kanauj took place in 1194, when Jai Chand was overthrown by Muhammad Ghori and his general, Qutb-ud-din Aibak, this being followed by the capture of Benares. As yet there was no permanent occupation but in 1202 Kalinjar was taken and given into the charge of Hizabar-ud-din Hasan Arnal, while Oudh and Bihar were entrusted to Muhammad Bakhtiar Khilji.* As Mahoba was also in the hands of the Musalmans we can but suppose that this district was at least nominally under their sway. At first, however, the main road to the east lay through Budaun and Oudh, so that no further reference is made to the lower Doab till the days of Ala-ud-din Masaud, when Kara in Allahabad is mentioned as the capital of a province, while at the same time Kanauj became once more a seat of government and was held by Malik Jalal-ud-din, the Sultan's uncle.† In 1248 Nasir-ud-din

The Delhi
Sultans.

* E. H. I., II, p. 232.

† *Ibid*, pp. 343, 344.

Mahmud proceeded to Kanauj and in that neighbourhood stormed the fort of Nandana, which still awaits identification; thence he marched to Kara through this district, sending in advance Ulugh Khan, who subdued all the refractory Hindus and in particular the mysterious chieftain named Dalaki Malaki, who probably held Kalinjar.* Shortly after the Sultan's return Jalal-ud-din was transferred from Kanauj to Budaun and his successor is not mentioned, though probably Ulugh Khan, who held Kara till 1253, when the command was given nominally to his brother, Mubarak Aibak, was the real ruler of the country. In 1255 Katlagh Khan, governor of Oudh, rebelled and was driven to take refuge in Kalinjar, whether he was pursued by Ulugh Khan, though on the latter's retirement he proceeded to harry the Doab till defeated by Arslan Khan, who had apparently succeeded to the charge of Kara. Ulugh Khan, who afterwards became the Sultan Balban, did much in the way of subduing the turbulent inhabitants, and apparently was the first to chastise the Meos of this district, who nevertheless continued to play the part of highway robbers and bandits for many centuries.† He repeated the process in 1259, but evidently the Hindu chieftains were practically independent save in the immediate presence of the royal armies, and tribute could only be collected by force. Mention is made of the construction of roads and the establishment of garrisons in the Doab, but the most distant post of this description was Bhojpur in Farrukhabad. In 1288 Kara was given to Chhajju, the nephew of Balban, but two years later he rebelled against Jalal-ud-din Firoz and marched through the district towards Delhi. He was joined by all the Hindus, on whom Balban's rule had at all events made a lasting impression: but he was overthrown by the Sultan, who had crossed the Ganges near Budaun.‡ Kara was then given to Ala-ud-din, who afterwards murdered his uncle near Manikpur and assumed the sovereignty. On reaching Delhi he gave Kara and Oudh to Ala-ul-mulk, but to what extent this command included Cawnpore it is impossible to say. Kanauj is not mentioned at this period, and we do not hear of Kalpi till some time later. The place of Ala-ul-mulk was taken, on his promotion to the office of *kotwal*

* E. H. I., II, p. 366. 1 † *Ibid*, p. 362 1 ‡ *Ibid*, III, p. 138.

at Delhi, by Nusrat Khan, though the new governor was more often with the army in the Deccan and elsewhere than at Kara* Ala-ud-din's rule in this part of the country was firm, but after his death confusion ensued everywhere till the accession of Ghias-ud-din Tughlaq in 1320. The decline in the central power however had given the Hindus an opportunity of strengthening their position, with the result that Muhammad Tughlaq about 1325 visited Hindustan and laid waste the whole neighbourhood of Kanauj.† This act of destruction was followed by an appalling famine, but we learn that grain was comparatively cheap in Kara and Oudh, whence large exports were made to the capital. A second revolt ensued, headed by Nizam Mian of Kara, but was crushed by Ain-ul-mulk, though the latter himself rebelled soon after, bringing the Sultan to Kanauj. The insurgents were pursued through the district, and then crossed the Ganges at Nanaman, shortly afterwards being routed near Bangarmanu in the Unao district.‡ Firoz Shah on his second expedition into Bengal marched through the district, and in 1361 he returned by the same route to Delhi after his purposeless campaign in Cuttack.

A new epoch commenced in 1377, when Kara, Mahoba ^{The Jaunpur} and Dalmau were placed in the charge of Mardan Daulat, who ^{king-} received the title of Malik-ush-sharq.§ Kanauj is ^{dom.} not specified, and possibly was retained under direct control. Mardon Daulat was succeeded the next year by his son, Sulaiman, of whom little further is heard, though he doubtless assisted his father in the support of Muhammad *bin* Firoz against the other claimants to the throne; afterwards he followed his father in the command of Multan, which he left to his son, Khizr Khan, the future Sultan.|| In 1392, owing to the uncertainty of affairs at Delhi, the Rajputs rose in revolt, in consequence of which Muhammad Shah marched to Etawah and thence to Kanauj, punishing the Hindus severely. The revolt however was not crushed, and in 1394 Sarwar Khan the Wazir, generally known as Khwaja Jahan, was sent to take charge of all the country from Kanauj to Bihar, under the title of Malik-ush-sharq. He appears to have ruled with a strong hand and to have made himself entirely independent

* *Ibid*, p. 172. † † *E. H. I.*, III, p. 243. ‡ *Ibid*, p. 249.

§ *Ibid*, IV, n. 13. || *Ibid*, pp. 22, 29—46.

of Delhi, assuming all the insignia of royalty. In this manner were laid the foundations of the Jaunpur kingdom, which certainly embraced the whole of this district. His position was rendered more secure five years later, when the invasion of Timur deprived the Delhi Sultan of all vestiges of such power as still remained to him. In 1399 Khwaja Jahan died, and his adopted son, Mubarak Shah, succeeded to the throne of Jaunpur. The new ruler had to settle affairs with Iqbal Khan, the real master of Delhi, and in 1400 the latter reached Kanauj, where he was confronted by the army of Mubarak, posted on the Oudh side of the Ganges. For two months the armies remained in this position, and then both departed. Iqbal returned to Kanauj in 1401 in company with Mahmud Shah, and Ibrahim, who had just succeeded his brother, marched against them from Jaunpur. The Sultan made overtures to Ibrahim, which were rejected, and then took up his residence in Kanauj, expelling the Jaunpur governor, while Iqbal returned to Delhi.* The western boundary of Ibrahim's kingdom at this period seems undefined, for it is said that Mahmud's rule was accepted by all the people in that part of the country; but on the south it appears to have been marked by the Junna, since Mahmud Khan held Mahoba and Kalpi, the latter being for the first time mentioned.† In 1404 Iqbal attempted without success to eject Mahmud Shah from Kanauj, and the next year he met his death in the Punjab. Thereupon Mahmud proceeded to Delhi, though he returned in 1406 presumably to check an attempt on the part of Ibrahim to seize Kanauj. As before, the armies parted without a battle; but on Mahmud's retirement Ibrahim besieged Mahmud Tarmati, the commander in Kanauj, and compelled him to surrender, afterwards giving the town to Ikhtiyar Khan. In October 1407 Ibrahim marched towards Delhi, but had to return in haste to defend his own country against Zafar Khan of Gujarat. This danger was averted, and for some time Ibrahim enjoyed peace, enabling him to consolidate his dominions. In 1413 he attempted to extend his borders by attacking Qadir Khan, the son of Mahmud Khan, at Kalpi, though apparently the town was not taken, for it was not in his possession in 1424, when Mubarak Shah

* E. H. I., IV, p. 39.

† *Ibid*, p. 37.

planned an expedition against Kanauj which was averted by a famine then raging in the Doab.* In 1426 too we hear that Qadir Khan was still at Kalpi imploring assistance against Ibrahim, who was once more threatening the place: but the latter, hearing of the advance of the Delhi army, marched up the Doab into Etawah. A battle took place near Rapri on the Jumna in which Ibrahim was worsted, whereon he returned, but unpursued, to his own country. Kalpi had, however, fallen before the arms of the Jaunpur king, who in 1437 extended his possessions by annexing several parganas in the Doab and beyond the Jumna.

In 1440 Ibrahim died and Mahmud his son sat upon the throne. This man continued the policy of his father, but nothing of note occurred till 1452, when incited by his wife, Malika Jahan, a daughter of the deposed Sultan Ala-ud-din Alam, Mahmud declared war on Bahlol Lodi.† He succeeded in reaching the outskirts of Delhi, but on being defeated retired to Jaunpur. The war thus commenced was continued with brief interruptions till the final extinction of the Jaunpur kingdom twenty-six years later, and during this period the peace of the district was constantly disturbed. The campaign at first centred round Shamsabad in the adjoining district of Farrukhabad. Peace was made only to be broken by Mahmud, and the warfare lasted till the latter's death in 1459. His successor, Muhammad, made peace with Bahlol, but the latter was urged by his wife, the sister of Qutb Khan, then a prisoner in Jaunpur, to redress her wrongs, and he consequently marched against Muhammad, who had extended his borders into Mainpuri. A battle ensued near Rapri in which Muhammad was defeated, owing to the defection of his brothers and chief nobles. He fled to Kanauj, and was shortly afterwards killed by the troops of his brother Husain, who succeeded to the throne. A truce was effected with Bahlol for four years; but in a short time Bahlol again seized Shamsabad, which brought Husain into the field: and when the former had to retire on account of disturbances in the Punjab, Husain followed him to Delhi; where much ineffectual fighting resulted in a three years' truce which appears to have been observed by both parties. In 1476 Husain

The fall
of Jaun-
pur.

* *Ibid*, p. 61. 1 † E. H. I., V. pp. 2, 79.

took possession of Etawah, and a year later he made an attempt on Delhi itself though without any result. A similar expedition was undertaken in 1478, when he actually succeeded in crossing the Jumna: but peace was made, whereby the Ganges was admitted to be the frontier of the two kingdoms. On his retirement however Bahlol turned on his adversary and inflicted a severe blow on Husain, who again made peace after giving up a large slice of territory. A year later hostilities recommenced and at length a decisive result ensued, for Husain was driven to take refuge in Gwalior and Bahlol marched down the Doab, taking Etawah and thence continuing his advance to Kalpi. For some time the two armies remained on opposite sides of the river, but eventually Bahlol was shown a practicable ford by the famous Tilok Chand, the leader of the Bais of Unao and Rai Bareli, with the consequence that Husain was again defeated, and the victor was enabled to take possession of Jaunpur.* The capital was given to his son, Barbak; Kara to Alam Khan, another son; and Kalpi with Lucknow to Azam Humayun, his grandson this charge obviously including the greater part of Cawnpore. Azam Humayun remained in charge till Bahlol's death in 1488, when he was ejected by Sikandar, the new Sultan, who gave the command to Mahmud Khan Lodi. In 1493 occurred the great Hindu rebellion, which apparently spread across the Ganges in this district and was crushed by Sikandar at Katgarh in Rai Bareli.† Mahmud Khan held his post till his death, when he was succeeded by his son, Jalal Khan: but the latter quarrelled with his brothers and the Sultan had to interfere on his behalf. The power of Jalal Khan seems to have been great, and among other exploits he conducted a successful expedition against Narwar in 1507; but he appears to have incurred suspicion on this account, and for the rest of the reign Kalpi was held by another Jalal Khan, the Sultan's second son. This prince on Sikandar's death in 1518 assumed the throne of Jaunpur under the title of Jalal-ud-din, but his brother, Ibrahim Shah, marched to Kanauj, and thence despatched an army under Azam Humayun of Kara against Kalpi, which surrendered with all Jalal's family and treasure.

* E. H. I., V, pp. 89, 90.

† *Ibid*, p. 93.

Jalal-ud-din had in the meantime marched on Agra, but was induced by the governor to make terms and return to Kalpi: this he did, but hearing of his brother's designs he fled to Gwalior and was subsequently captured and put to death. The rest of Ibrahim's brief reign is a period of confusion, in which the Afghan nobles were endeavouring to secure their own independence instead of uniting to face the invasion of Babar and his Mughals, with the result that at Panipat in 1526 Ibrahim was utterly defeated and slain.

At this time the Lohani faction held Kanauj and the neighbourhood, and with the aid of the Sarwanis and others they set up Bahadur Khan, the son of Darya Khan Lohani, the late governor of Bihar, as ruler in Jaunpur and Bihar under the title of Muhammad Shah. The Sarwanis, it should be noted, were in possession of Cawnpore itself, this place being expressly mentioned as the *jagir* of Azam Humayun, who for a long time was governor of Kara.* In 1527, however, Barbar sent Kamran and Amir Quli Beg eastwards, and they took possession of Jaunpur; but the diversion occasioned by the Rajput confederacy in the west enabled Muhammad to drive out the garrison and to regain his capital. The same rebellion, actively aided by the Afghans, caused Muhammad Duldai, Barbar's governor, to quit Kanauj, though soon after that city was recovered by Sultan Mirza. In 1528 the prince was defeated in an attempt to conquer Oudh and compelled to fall back on Kanauj, which for a while was completely isolated till Babar himself restored order in the Doab. On his death in 1530 Humayun found himself confronted by a rebellion on the part of his brothers, who took Kanauj but were defeated near Bilgram in Hardoi by Mirza Hindal. The Afghans in the east, however, were still unconquered, and in 1537 Humayun proceeded to Bengal where he became so entangled that Sher Khan Suri, better known as Sher Shah, got possession of all Oudh and was actually threatening Kanauj, then held by Nur-ud-din Muhammad. The latter, considering Humayun's position hopeless, threw in his lot with Hindal, who now held Agra, and his defection enabled Sher Shah to gain not only Kanauj but all the country as far west as Sambhal. An attack on Kalpi by Qutb Khan, the

The
Mughal
conquest.

* E. H. I., IV, p. 321.

son of Sher Shah, was frustrated by Humayun, but in 1540 the Mughals were entirely overthrown near Kanauj, and Sher Shah became the undisputed monarch of all Hindustan.

Sher
Shah.

Practically no reference is made to the district during the reigns of Sher Shah and Islam Shah; but it is certain that for the first time for centuries the country benefited greatly from the effects of a strong and wise government. It was Sher Shah who laid the foundations of the Mughal revenue system, and the same monarch was responsible for the construction of the Mughal road, and probably for the erection of the *sarais* along its course. On the death of Islam Shah in 1554 confusion once more ensued. Muhammad Adil Shah seems to have held this part of the country, for it is narrated that he took Kanauj from the Farnulis and bestowed it on one Sarmast Khan; but his authority was of little account, since while he was engaged in fighting Ibrahim Shah near Agra a third claimant, in the person of Muhammad Shah of Bengal, entered the lower Doab and proceeded against Kalpi. Muhammad Adil returned hastily and a battle ensued at Chaparghata, in which Bengal Sultan was defeated and slain.* The disturbed state of Hindustan afforded the necessary opportunity to Humayun, who returned and captured Delhi in 1556.

Akbar.

The conquest of the east, however, did not take place till 1559, when Ali Quli Khan, Khan Zaman, drove out the Afghans from Oudh and Jaunpur; while two years later the stronghold of Chunar was taken from Muhammad Adil's son. In 1561 Akbar himself proceeded to Jaunpur, marching through the district along the Mughal road and paying a visit to Abdullah Khan Uzbek, who then held Kalpi: he returned by the same route towards the end of the year. At the same time Kanauj was held by Munim Khan, Khan Khanan, while Kara and Fatehpur were the *jagir* of Kamal Khan; the Gakkhar chief: the latter was, however, sent back to the Punjab after the defeat of Sher Khan, and his place taken by Asaf Khan, while Abdullah was moved to Mandu.† In 1565 occurred the great rebellion headed by Ali Quli Khan and his brother, to suppress which Asaf Khan advanced from Kara and Munim Khan crossed the Ganges from Kanauj, to which place Akbar soon repaired in person. Thence the emperor

* E. H. I., IV, p. 507.

† *Ibid*, V, pp. 279, 288.

made a rapid march on Lucknow and Jaunpur, but Ali Quli Khan had fled southwards into Mirzapur. He afterwards made peace, but in the meantime Bahadur Khan and Sikan-dar Khan had defeated the imperial troops under Raja Todar Mal and compelled them to take refuge in Kanauj, from which it would appear that this part of the campaign had been conducted in the Doab.* The pardon of Ali Quli Khan involved that of his brother also, but in 1567 the revolt broke out afresh and Akbar again went to Jaunpur. Once more the rebels were pardoned; but they still remained thoroughly disloyal, and in 1567 they broke out again. Mirza Yusuf Khan was besieged in Kanauj by Ali Quli Khan, but on Akbar's approach the rebels retired through the district towards Kara, though they altered their intention when Akbar crossed into Oudh and made southwards to Kalpi. The imperial forces, however, were too quick for them, and they were caught at Mankarwal in the Allahabad district, where both brothers lost their lives.† With the termination of the rebellion there ensued a period of peace which remained unbroken to the end of the reign, although the rebellion of Prince Salim at Allahabad shortly before Akbar's death rendered the central authority little more than nominal.

It is far from easy to reconstitute the district as it was in the days of Akbar, owing to the fact that the area was then divided between three different *sarkars* or divisions belonging to the *subas* or provinces of Agra and Allahabad, and also to the many alterations of boundaries and nomenclature that have since taken place under the various administrations which succeeded to the rule of the Mughals. In some cases the old names remain, but it is at least doubtful whether the areas correspond even approximately to those of the old subdivisions.

Roughly speaking the north and west of the district formed part of *sarkar* Kanauj, the south of Kalpi and the east of Kora, the last being included in the provincial government of Allahabad. Of the eight *mahals* or *parganas* that comprised the Kora *sarkar* four lay wholly in this district and the rest in the modern Fatehpur, with the probable exception of a part of Kora itself, which appears to have extended into the

* E. H. I., V, p. 304.

† *Ibid*, p. 321.

Narwal tahsil. The largest of the four *mahals* was Ghatampur, which had a cultivated area of 73,876 *bighas* and was assessed at 3,667,564 *dams*; it was held by Dikhit Rajputs and the military contingent included 100 horse and 2,000 foot, as well as ten elephants. The area was less than that of the present tahsil, for an addition was afterwards made of 63 villages taken from Shahpur and formed into a separate pargana under the name of Akbarpur Birbal, called after Akbar's famous minister. The *mahal* of Jajmau represents a portion of the modern Cawnpore tahsil and a considerable part of Narwal. It had 62,195 *bighas* under cultivation, assessed at 3,106,346 *dams*, and the *zamindars* were Lodi Afghans and Bais Rajputs; there was a brick fort at the headquarters, and the local levies comprised 200 cavalry, 4,000 infantry and seven elephants. The *mahal* of Majhawan has disappeared, having been absorbed in Sarh Salempur and Jajmau in 1807; but the name is preserved in a large village in the south-east corner of the Cawnpore tahsil. The area under tillage was 26,980 *bighas*, the revenue 1,323,339 *dams*, and the military force 20 horse and 1,000 foot, supplied by the Brahman landholders. The fourth was Mohsinpur, the identification of which is a matter of some dispute. There is a hamlet of that name on the Rind in the extreme south of Narwal, but it is more probable that the place indicated is the village of Rawatpur Mohsinpur, locally called Rawatpur Maswanpur, the seat of the Chandel Rawats, to the west of Cawnpore. It was then held by Chandels, who furnished 50 horse and 2,000 foot, and paid 600,586 *dams* on 13,881 *bighas* of cultivation. The *mahal* of Kora was owned by Brahmans, but it is impossible to say what proportion of its area within the boundaries of this district.

Sarkar
Kalpi

The *sarkar* of Kalpi contained fifteen parganas, most of which were situated on the south side of the Jumna. Of those belonging to Cawnpore only Derapur retains its former name. It had 103,085 *bighas* under tillage, and paid a revenue of 1,760,750 *dams*; it was held by Sheikhzadas, who contributed 50 horse and 2,000 matchlockmen. Bilaspur was afterwards known as Sikandra and is now a part of Derapur, having been amalgamated with the latter in 1861: it was owned by Rajputs of the Kachhwaha clan, who paid 3,714,547

dams on 126,889 *bighas* of cultivation, and supplied 100 cavalry and 5,000 foot. The third was Shahpur, named after a town on the banks of the Jumna, where numberless ruins of tombs and other buildings speak of former magnificence. The encroachments of the river led to its abandonment for Hasnapur, a village on the Rind of which the remains are to be seen in the modern Bhojpura, and subsequently for Akbarpur, the name being frequently given as Akbarpur-Shahpur. In the seventeenth century Shahpur gave its name to a separate *sarkar* containing 25 *mahals* in the old divisions of Kalpi and Kananj, and on several occasions it was held in *jagir* by a prince of the blood. In Akbar's day Shahpur paid a revenue of 8,843,420 *dams*, the *zamindars* being Chauhan and Malik-zadas who contributed six elephants, 300 horse and 3,000 foot: the cultivated area for some unknown reason is not stated.

The rest of the district was included in the *sarkar* of Kananj, which comprised 30 *mahals* in the middle Doab. ^{Sarkar Kananj.} Bilhaur was much smaller than at present and contained 63,774 *bighas* under cultivation, paying a revenue of 2,828,359 *dams* it was held by Rajputs, who furnished 20 cavalry and 1,000 infantry. Included in the modern tahsil were Nanaman and Deolia, called after existing villages. The former was very small and was owned by Brahmans and Rajputs, who contributed 100 horse and 100 foot, and paid 136,921 *dams* on 3,329 *bighas* of cultivation. Deolia was divided between Rajputs of the Chauhan, Bais and Dhakra clans, who paid 483,171 *dams* on an area of 11,951 *bighas*: the local levies were 20 horse and 300 foot. Malkusah or Malkonsa, commemorated in more than one current distich as Malgosa, appears to be identical with the Rasulabad of later days. It was the country of the Gahlots, who supplied the surprisingly large force of 300 horse and 15,000 foot; the area under the plough was 30,230 *bighas* and the revenue 1,500,000 *dams*. Barah was a small Chauhan *mahal*, with 8,740 *bighas* of cultivation and a revenue of 400,000 *dams*: it supplied ten horsemen and 300 infantry. It afterwards passed into the hands of Mughals and was united with Akbarpur before the cession. The Sheoli *mahal*, now a part of Sheorajpur, was divided between the Chandels of Onha and Sakrej; it contained 12,523 *bighas* of tillage, assessed at

623,473 *dams*, while the contingent was the same as in Barah. There remains the ancient *mahal* of Bithur, which has completely disappeared, having been merged in Sheorajpur and Jajman, the last step being taken in 1860. It was of course held by Chandels, who furnished 300 horse and 5,000 foot and paid 2,921,389 *dams* on 175,043 *bighas* of cultivation.

The
revenue.

Omitting Kora, and leaving out of account minor alterations and exchanges of territory in the other *mahals*, we find that the aggregate revenue of the district in the reign of Akbar was 31,909,955 *dams*, exclusive of 772,007 *dams* under the head of *suayurghal* or revenue assigned for some specific purpose, making a total of Rs. 8,17,049 at the rate of forty *dams* to the rupee. The cultivated area for Shahpur is not given, but by taking the average revenue rate for the rest of the district it works out at 200,637 *bighas*; and this brings the whole area up to 721,433 *bighas* or 450,896 acres. This is little more than half the present average, while the revenue is about 37 per cent. of that realised in 1906-07. On the other hand it must be remembered that in the sixteenth century the purchasing power of the rupee was at least four times as great as it is to-day, so that an average rate of Re. 1-12-10 per acre, if ever collected in full, must have been an infinitely more severe burden than the Rs. 2-9-10 of the present time. It is doubtless true that the system of collection was far more elastic than now; but even so allowance has to be made for the extortions of the revenue officers, which certainly constituted a substantial addition to the State demand.

Akbar's
success-
sors.

In 1610 Jahangir bestowed Kalpi and Kanauj on Abdur Rahim, the son of the great Bairam; but not long after he was transferred to the Deccan, and Kanauj was given to Sadr Jahan of Pihani, who held peaceful charge till his death in 1620. Nothing worthy of note occurred till 1658 when Aurangzeb marched through the district against Shuja, whom he defeated and overthrew at Khajuha in Fatehpur. After the death of Aurangzeb civil war was raging throughout the empire, and Cawnpore shared in the general confusion. In 1711 Jahandar Shah found himself threatened by Furrukhsiyar, who was marching from Bengal supported by Abdullah Khan, governor of Allahabad, and the other Barha Saiyids. Kora and Kara were then held by Sarbuland Khan, who set

off to join Jahandar's son, Aziz-ud-din, marching eastwards from Agra. The latter passed down the Mughal road, but on meeting the army of Farrukhsiyar at Khajuha his troops fled, and the prince himself made his way back to Agra. Farrukhsiyar then marched onwards, but his route was not that of the Mughal road, since he appears to have proceeded by way of Sapahi and Sheoli to Nadiha and thence to Makanpur, where he paid a visit to the tomb of Shah Madar on the 12th of December 1712. The province of Allahabad, which included most of Cawnpore, was retained for some years by Abdullah Khan, who was succeeded by Chhabila Ram Nagar. After the latter's death in 1719 came his brother, Giridhar, and in 1721 the government was entrusted to Muhammad Khan Bangash, a personality who requires some special mention.

The decay of the Mughal empire lead to the establishment of several independent principalities in the north of India, which only in the presence of a superior military force owned any allegiance to Delhi. Of such a nature were the territories of Oudh, of Farrukhabad and of the Rohilla confederacy, all of which played some part in the history of this district. Farrukhabad owed its origin to Muhammad Khan Bangash, a Pathan of the colony settled at Mau Rashidabad, who was at first a soldier of fortune and spent his early years in Bundelkhand. In 1712 he joined Farrukhsiyar at Khajuha, and for the bravery he displayed at the battle of Samogar he obtained the title of Nawab and a large *jagir* in Bundelkhand. To this was added a considerable part of the present Farrukhabad district in 1720, and the next year Muhammad Shah promoted him to the governorship of Allahabad. His time was almost wholly taken up with the districts to the south of the Jumna, where he waged an incessant warfare against the Bundelas till 1729, when a peace was made owing to the intervention of the Marathas. He had on the whole been successful, but he was continually hampered by the lack of funds; for though the revenues of Kora were nominally assigned for the support of his troops the money was generally withheld in his absence and the *jagirs* were awarded to others. On the conclusion of hostilities the Nawab was ordered to repair to court; but his

services received scant recognition, for Allahabad was given to Sarbuland Khan in 1730, while Muhammad Khan had to content himself with the province of Malwa, then reduced to a miserable condition by the inroads of the Marathas. At that time Kanauj was held by Raja Giridhar Bahadur, who was afterwards replaced by Raja Himmat Singh of Bhadawar; and Kora was in the charge of Jan Nisar Khan, who in 1734 was murdered by the Khichar Raja of Asothar. This necessitated an expedition into Fatehpur which was conducted by Muhammad Khan, though it would seem that the latter was ready to win a friend in this direction, for there is a story of his being bribed by Raja Bhagwant Rai, who remained in actual possession of all Kora. One reason for this result was the appearance of the Marathas, probably at the instigation of Bhagwant Rai. In 1735 they raided the country of Kalpi and then overran Derapur, Sikandra and the south of this district, levying contributions from the *zamindars*. To repel the invaders Muhammad Khan was reappointed to the government of Allahabad in November 1735, but he only held it for five months, being then replaced by Sarbuland Khan. In 1739 the *suba* was given to Amir Khan, Umdat-ul-mulk, who remained in charge till his assassination in 1746, when the province came into the hands of Safdar Jang, the Nawab Wazir of Oudh. In the rest of this district, however, there was no one to contest the power of Muhammad Khan, who placed his *chelas* in charge of the various parganas. The chief of these was Shamsheer Khan, who for a long time held Musanagar, Shahpur, Akbarpur and Billaur. On one occasion when Safdar Jang was on his way to Delhi, Shamsheer Khan forbade the advanced guard of the Nawab to halt within his jurisdiction, with the result that Safdar Jang was kept waiting at the Nanamau ferry till he could obtain permission to cross from Farrukhabad; and even then Shamsheer Khan plundered his rearguard, an act which probably cost him his life when he fell into the hands of the Nawab Wazir in 1750. The local Hindu chieftains were rather allies than subjects of Muhammad Khan, especially the Chandel Rajas of Sheorajpur and Sachendi, who were practically independent.

Nawab Muhammad Khan died in 1743, and his possessions passed into the hands of his son, Qaim Khan, who in 1748 fell a victim to the machinations of Safdar Jang by being

persuaded to wage war on the Rohillas and to undertake the disastrous campaign which terminated in the battle of Dauri Rasulpur, near Budaun. Here Qaim Khan lost his life, and his successor, Imam Khan, was totally unable to resist the forces of the Nawab Wazir, who carried him off a prisoner from Farrukhabad with four of his brothers, and then annexed all the territories of the Bangash, driving out Jafar Khan from Akbarpur and dismissing the officers of the other parganas. The country was entrusted to his minister, Nawal Rai, who established his headquarters at Kanauj. In 1750 however Ahmad Khan, the second son of Muhammad Khan, proclaimed himself Nawab, collected a large force of Pathans and Rajputs and fell upon Nawal Rai at Khudaganj, where the minister was defeated and slain, the remnants of his army making their escape to Bithur and thence by way of Mohsinpur and Jajmau to Kora. Ahmad Khan then attacked Safdar Jang himself, and inflicted a severe defeat on him near Patiali in Etah, by means of which he recovered all the country from Aligarh to Kora, with the recognition of his title from Delhi. He now endeavoured to follow up his success by an invasion of Oudh, sending his son Mahmud against Lucknow, while his brother, Shadi Khan, supported by Nawaz Khan Khatak, who was placed in charge of Akbarpur Shahpur, was directed to take possession of Kora. The latter sustained a defeat at the hands of Ali Quli Khan, who was holding Allahabad, and there upon Ahmad Khan proceeded in person to Kora which he seized, then continuing his march eastwards to Allahabad. His force had been swollen by the contingents of the Chandels and Khichars and he was now joined by the Sombansis of Partabgarh and the Pathans of the eastern districts, while Raja Balwant Singh of Benares promised his assistance. For some months he besieged the fort of Allahabad, but in the beginning of 1751 he received tidings of Safdar Jang's advance from Delhi with his Jat and Maratha allies. Ahmad Khan hastened to protect his capital, but this retrograde step lost him most of his mercenaries and on his return he was compelled to shut himself up in the fort of Fategarh. There he was besieged for a month, and when the Rohilla reinforcements brought by Sadullah Khan were defeated he fled across the Ganges and accompanied the Rohillas to their entrenched camp at the foot of the Kumaun hills. There he remained

till the approach of Ahmad Shah Durrani caused a peace to be patched up in 1752 by which the Bangash Nawab agreed to cede half his territories to the Marathas: he retained the management, but handed over the surplus revenues to the agents posted at Kanauj and Aliganj, the ceded country including practically all his possessions in this district. This arrangement was maintained till the overthrow of the Marathas at Panipat in 1761, but in the meantime Ahmad Khan had materially improved his position by obtaining from the Wazir, Ghazi-ud-din Imad-ul-mulk, the title of Amir-ul-umra and the post of Bakhshi in 1757. After Panipat he regained almost the whole of his lost estates, and subsequently he was able to requite Imad-ul-mulk, when the latter fell into disgrace, with the grant of pargana Bilhaur. In the same year Shuja-ud-daula, who had succeeded Safdar Jang, accompanied by Shah Alam the emperor, made a tour through the territories of Allahabad, passing through Jajmau and Kalpi. In 1762 he proceeded to attack Ahmad Khan on the pretext that the Bangash Nawab had assumed royal privileges, and advanced as far as Kanauj; but he was deterred by the vigorous preparations for defence on the part of the Pathans, who had been warned of the impending danger by the Raja of Sachendi while Shuja-ud-daula and the emperor were halting at the Madarbari in Makanpur, and also by the news of the movements of a portion of the Oudh army which had come up along the bank of the Jumna, plundered Musanagar and was now encamped at Khwaja Phul. Peace was made through the mediation of the Rohillas, Najib Khan and Hafiz Rahmat, who then escorted the invaders back to Kora. In 1764, after his defeat at Bak-sar, the Nawab Wazir came to Farrukhabad for assistance; but Ahmad Khan strongly dissuaded him from resisting the English, though without effect. With the aid of Imad-ul-mulk and the Marathas he set out eastwards along the old Mughal road to Kora.

The
English.

By this time Sir Robert Fletcher had captured the fort of Allahabad, and thence advancing up the Doab he was joined by General Carnac, who had received news of the action of the Nawab Wazir. On the 3rd of May 1765 a battle was fought near Jajmau, in which Shuja-ud-daula was again defeated, his

Maratha allies flying to Kora, which they plundered before crossing the Jumna to Kalpi. Imad-ul-mulk fled to Farrukhabad, and the Nawab proceeded almost unattended to the English camp at Jajmau, where he was well received and a treaty was concluded, whereby he recovered his dominions with the exception of the *sarkars* of Kora and Allahabad, which were assigned to Shah Alam. During the course of the negotiations a force was despatched in pursuit of the Marathas, and after crossing the Jumna at Kalpi, it drove them back to the hills of Bundelkhand.

The distribution of territory made under this treaty was maintained till 1771, when Shah Alam left Allahabad for Delhi. There he made over the country to the Marathas, a step which was held to constitute an infraction of the agreement, with the result that in 1773 the districts were handed over to the Nawab Wazir for fifty lakhs of rupees. The administration was then entrusted to Mian Almas Ali Khan, a minister of great ability who had his headquarters at Kora.

Oudh.

Meanwhile Ahmad Khan Bangash retained the *sarkar* of Kanauj and followed the plan adopted by his father in giving various parganas to his dependents, such as Nur Ali Khan, who held Derapur, and Daim Khan, who was appointed to Akbarpur Shahpur. In 1771 however he was forced by the defection of the Rohillas to meet the Marathas alone, with the result that he had to yield them once again the parganas formerly allotted to them. In the same year Ahmad Khan died, and his successor, Muzaffar Jang, found himself almost powerless in the face of his many enemies. The fact was that by this time the Pathans had really lost their old supremacy in the middle Doab and were no longer a match for the Marathas, who entered into actual possession of the tract assigned to them. Moreover, they now admitted the suzerainty of the Nawab Wazir, and from 1772 tribute was regularly sent from Furrukhabad to Lucknow. In the following years Muzaffar Jang accompanied Shuja-ud-daula in his campaign against the Marathas in Etawah, and he was powerless to protest when soon afterwards the Nawab Wazir took possession of all the Kanauj parganas in this district, ejecting the Maratha *amils* and adding the territory to that already administered by Almas Ali Khan. Thus the principality of

Fall of
the
Pathans.

Farrukhabad finally ceased to exist so far as the Cawnpore district is concerned, and from that date till 1801 the country formed an integral portion of the Oudh dominions.

Oudh
rule.

Under the Nawab Wazir the district fared little better than others. There can be no doubt that Almas Ali Khan was a far more talented administrator than most of his compeers; but at the same time it must be remembered that his chief object was to secure the maximum revenue by whatever means came to hand, and for this purpose he had recourse to the usual system of farming, while the great lessees in turn farmed their parganas to underlings, on whose rapacity there was no possible check. The local Rajas maintained their position by outbidding others, aided by the influence they still possessed over their tenantry; and in a few cases the old *jagirdars* were allowed to remain, as for example Daim Khan, who was a personal friend of the Nazim and was given the Pukhrayan estate, which continued in the hands of his descendants till its sale in 1845. The consequence of this system, combined with the effects of a hitherto unknown precariousness of tenure, was inevitable, and the misery of the lower classes excessive. Mr. Welland, the first collector of Cawnpore, observed that "the subjects in this part of the country are in the most abject state of poverty. Let the face of the country be examined, and there will hardly be a manufacture found or an individual in such circumstances as to afford the payment of a tax. The whole is one desolate waste, in which tyranny and oppression have hitherto universally prevailed." In another place he states that "the policy of the Nawab Wazir and Almas Ali Khan was to levy and collect by every means practicable all they could, and at the commencement of each season of cultivation they granted supplies for carrying it on; even the subsistence, food, raiment and dwelling of the inhabitants were mostly regulated and paid for by the funds furnished by the government." The under-farmers found the conditions of their leases altered three or four times in a year, and they were obliged to pass the additional burdens on to the cultivator. Trade too was hampered to an inconceivable extent by irregular dues exacted on all kinds of merchandise and handicrafts, almost every petty *zamindar* on the lines of communication exacting transit dues on all goods passing through his territory, the sole limit being his power to enforce payment. Of such

a nature was the *parjot* or duty levied on all shopkeepers; the taxes imposed on the collection of salt, on fishing in the rivers and on grazing cattle on common lands; and the cess known as *sang-wazani*, nominally for defraying the expenses incurred in connection with the examination of weights and measures, but in actual practice exacted from all traders alike. There was no police and no security for life or property: the cultivator hardly knew whether he should be able to reap the crop that he had sown; tillage languished, trade decreased, and the chief care of the great majority of the population was either to defend their own property or to plunder that of others.

Under such circumstances a change of Government could hardly prove other than acceptable to the inhabitants of the district, and it is not surprising that the transfer of the sovereignty from the Nawab Wazir to the Company was effected without disturbance or demur. This step was taken under the treaty of the 10th of November 1801, whereby the lower Doab, Rohilkhand, Gorakhpur and other tracts were ceded to the Company in return for a guarantee of protection and for the extinction of the debt incurred on account of the Oudh local forces, some of which had been cantoned at Cawnpore since in 1778. For administrative purposes Cawnpore was made the headquarters of a district, though the charge was much greater than at present as has been already mentioned in the preceding chapter. There too will be found some account of the early days of British rule, so far as the various departments of Government and in particular the assessment and collection of the land revenue are concerned.

The political history of this period is meagre, but there are two points to which reference should be made. In 1804 the pargana of Sikandra was given in *jagir* to Raja Himmat Bahadur, the famous Goshain chieftain of Bundelkhand, who had been a useful ally to the British in the Maratha wars. The grant was made free of revenue, with the object of keeping that turbulent chief quiet and inducing him to withdraw from Bundelkhand. Himmat Bahadur, however, died before the *sanad* was drawn up and the *jagir* was given in 1806 to his illegitimate son, Narendragir, who held the estate till his death in 1840. The grant to the latter was made on grounds of political expediency, and the question of his legitimacy was

not raised; but on his demise no such consideration existed, while the *jagir* had in fact been converted into a pecuniary stipend, since the mismanagement and extortion practised by the incumbent had compelled Government to make a regular settlement with the village proprietors. It was then decided that the *jagir* had lapsed by the failure of legitimate issue to Narendragir, but that in the spirit of the grant the proceeds of the estate would remain appropriated to the family of the late Raja. These proceeds, after deducting 20 per cent. for the cost and risk of collection, were to be divided into three shares, one for the widow for life and two to the illegitimate sons, Jai Indargir and Padam Indargir, to whom the widow's share was ultimately to revert and whose right was declared hereditary. In order to pay off the debts, which amounted to more than nine lakhs, deductions were made from the pensions so as to clear off the encumbrances in the course of eighteen years. The full pension of one-third was paid to the Rani from 1857 to the time of her death; but the two sons never obtained the benefit of the measures taken to extinguish the debt, since their disloyalty in the Mutiny caused the confiscation of their stipends, although they were permitted a subsistence allowance of Rs. 100 per annum for life.

Bithur.

The other and in the event far more important measure was the grant of land at Bithur, with a pension of eight lakhs, to Baji Rao, the Peshwa of Poona, on his surrender to Sir John Malcolm in 1818. The deposed ruler built a large palace in the town, where he resided in almost regal state, surrounded by a retinue of 16,000 men, though this was afterwards reduced to 5,000. He died in 1851, leaving no issue, but he had adopted Sririkh Dundu Panth, better known as the Nana Sahib. He was generally styled the Maharaja of Bithur, but he failed in his repeated endeavours to secure his adoptive father's pension, salute and other honours. The Nana was surrounded by a host of Maratha courtiers and agents whose time was constantly employed in intrigue, the chief among the latter being one Azim-ullah, who had begun life as a table-servant, had acquired some knowledge of French and English, had then been appointed a schoolmaster in Cawnpore and had finally joined the Nana's service, on whose behalf he had visited England

and also, it is said, Russia. The presence of a large body of discontented Marathas was undoubtedly a source of danger; but the Nana's outward display of friendliness towards the British officers and residents disarmed all suspicion, and by most he was considered a loyal supporter of the Government. He was allowed to retain a force of three guns and 500 men, but it is probable that the number of armed dependents was considerably greater.

There is no need to repeat here the harrowing details of the oft-told history of the Mutiny at Cawnpore, and a bare recital of the chief events will suffice. The military force at that time in cantonments comprised small detachments of Bengal Artillery, the 32nd and 84th Foot and the 1st Madras Fusiliers, numbering 174 Europeans in all; as well as the 2nd Native Cavalry, and the 1st, 53rd and 56th N. I. The station was the headquarters of a division, and in command was Major General Sir Hugh Wheeler, a distinguished officer of great experience though now well over seventy years of age. The collector of the district was Mr. C. G. Hillersdon and there was a large number of Europeans resident in cantonments, including those connected with the civil, railway, canal and other departments, as well as almost all the women and children of the 32nd Foot then stationed at Lucknow. Altogether there were some 750 souls in the place, men, women and children, but it is impossible in the face of conflicting statements to ascertain the exact number.

From the first the position was a dangerous one, owing to the uncertain temper of the native troops, particularly the cavalry; and also to the composition of the city rabble, which contained a large number of fugitives from Oudh, and had for years been the place to which criminals from all parts of India had collected in order to escape into Oudh beyond the reach of the British Government; while a further source of danger, though as yet suspected by few, lay in the recent activity of the Nana, who was in correspondence with several other Maratha leaders and in April 1857 had undertaken a somewhat mysterious journey to Lucknow. In the same month a party of the disbanded 19th N. I. from Berhampore passed through Cawnpore, filling the troops with tales about

Cawnpore
in 1857.

Prelimi-
nary
events.

the new cartridge. The excitement thus aroused was increased by the arrival of the news from Meerut on the 14th of May, and two days later a fire occurred in the lines of the 1st N. I. It was then considered advisable to move the European ladies and merchants to the barracks, whither the artillery had been transferred. These measures still further excited the sepoys, who were now felt to be quite untrustworthy; and on the 20th General Wheeler telegraphed for reinforcements to Lucknow, which arrived in the shape of 50 men of the 32nd Foot. The district was still undisturbed, for the police were active, and on the 17th the *thanadar* of Sheorajpur had actually apprehended and sent in a party of mutineers found with plundered property. On the 22nd the Nana, who had repeatedly proffered aid and was now summoned by the magistrate, came in with 200 men and two guns to Nawabganj, and on the 26th he was given charge of the treasury. The General then determined to provide an asylum for the European residents in case of need and selected for the purpose the dépôt of the 32nd, two long single-storeyed barracks, which he surrounded by a trench with a parapet four or five feet high. This was the famous "entrenchment," an enclosure about 200 feet square, on an open plain at the end of the station and within range of the native infantry lines on two sides. The magazine near Nawabganj was abandoned, a measure which has afforded food for criticism ever since. It could have been held for an indefinite time against almost any force, and contained abundant supplies of every description. It has been urged that in that year the water supply was defective, but there is no record of any such plea: and in fact it would seem that Wheeler not only depended implicitly on the Nana but had made up his mind to hold on to the line of communication with Allahabad, confident that succour would speedily arrive along the grand trunk road. On the 27th two squadrons of Oudh irregular cavalry, which had been sent in from Lucknow and were known to be disaffected, were ordered to clear the road to Fatehgarh; but on reaching Karauli on the 1st of June they mutinied, only one officer, Lieutenant Carey, escaping. About that date Wheeler generously weakened his force by sending 50 men of the 32nd and 50 of the 84th to Lucknow.

By the 4th of June a fair amount of provisions, some treasure and a few guns had been stored in the entrenchment : ^{The out-} break. and the next morning the cavalry mutinied, followed by the 1st N. I. and both marched off to Nawabganj, though without injuring their officers. On the 6th the other two regiments followed suit, anxious not to be left behind in the plunder of the treasury. A few men of each corps remained loyal and were taken into the entrenchment ; but in the meantime the treasure had been looted, the jail opened and the civil station plundered. The sepoys had then marched off for Delhi ; but the Nana hastened after them and induced them to return and destroy the English, actually informing General Wheeler of his intentions by letter. All Europeans were hastily summoned to the entrenchment : but many were too late, for at 10 A.M. on the 6th the first gun was fired at the besieged garrison. From that moment till the 26th the defence was subjected to an incessant bombardment from heavy guns brought by the Nana out of the magazine. On the 9th a squadron of the 7th Cavalry and two companies of the 48th N. I., then encamped at Chaubepur, mutinied and murdered their officers with the exception of Lieutenant Boulton, who found his way into the entrenchment the next day, his horse jumping the slight parapet that constituted the sole protection of the position. The same day three boatloads of fugitives, some 60 or 70 persons, came down the Ganges from Fatehgarh, and running aground near Nawabganj the whole party was ultimately massacred by the Nana's order. A general assault was made on the entrenchment on the 11th but was easily repulsed, though the losses of the garrison from artillery and disease were already heavy. On the 13th the thatched roof of one of the barracks was set on fire and this caused the loss of all the hospital stores, at the same time depriving many of the defenders of shelter from the blazing sun. A successful sortie was made on the 14th, resulting in the destruction of a battery ; and it is probable that a very slight reinforcement at this period would have enabled Wheeler to deliver a crushing blow on the disheartened enemy. Food was now running short, and the blockade was daily becoming closer ; while the besieging force was swelled on the 16th by the arrival of the 4th and 5th Oudh Local Infantry, who erected a new and most

annoying battery, commanding the single well from which the garrison obtained their water. On the 18th the newcomers attempted to assault the position, but were repulsed with loss; and a similar result attended a more vigorous attempt on the 23rd.

The
massacre.

On the 25th the Nana proposed terms to the besieged which were accepted, and on the morning of the 27th the garrison marched out under arms to the boats at the Sati Chaura-ghat. In the meantime elaborate arrangements had been made along the river bank under the supervision of Tantia Topi. The scheme was carried out with consummate skill, for only a single boat escaped, and out of that boat no more than four survived to be rescued by the loyal Raja of Murarman. The women and children to the number of 125 were taken prisoners and carried off to the Savada Kothi, a building used by the Nana as his residence during the siege. On the 30th their numbers were swelled by the arrival of those who had been captured from the boat that had escaped downstream, the men being shot on the river bank. The fourth massacre took place on the 9th of July, when the remnants of the Fatehgarh fugitives were captured at Bithur. The men were killed on the spot, while the women and children were taken to join the rest at the Bibigarh in the old cantonment whither they had been removed from the Savada Kothi. There they were kept till the final act of the tragedy on the 15th of July, when the approach of Havelock warned the Nana of his unerring fate.

The Nana's
rule.

Meanwhile the Nana had been enthroned as Peshwa on the 1st of July at Bithur, though his sovereignty was little more than nominal. The rebellious Hindus were content enough to recognise a ruler of their own race; but the Musalmans, who had been incited to rise by the display of the green flag, felt that they had gained little by the advancement of a Hindu and turned their attention to their leader, Nanhe Nawab. The latter had already become an object of suspicion and on the 3rd of July he was placed in confinement by the Nana, who at the same time appears to have endeavoured to pacify the Muhammadans by several appointments in his administration. Azim-ullah was, of course, his chief agent throughout, and others were Shah Ali, the city *kotwal*, and the tahsildars of Bijlaur and Bithur. The chief officers in his army however

were Hindus, including Bala Rao, his brother, Jwala Prasad, the commandant of his personal troops, and Tika Singh of the 2nd Cavalry. The rule of the Nana was of the most primitive description, being based wholly on force and fear. Funds were collected solely by extortion, the chief sufferers being the bankers and merchants of the city; and it is clear that this class at all events deeply lamented the disappearance of British authority. In the district, beyond the immediate reach of the Nana's arm, little attention was paid to his authority and utter confusion prevailed. The majority of the landlords had suffered from the revenue administration of the past half-century and were consequently disaffected; but there was no general rising, and rebellion was confined to a few leading *zamindars*. The Chaudhris of Bithur naturally enough joined with the Nana from the first, and these were followed by the Raja of Thatia in Farrukhabad, Moti Singh of Nanamanau, the Rajputs of Kakadeo and other villages in the suburbs, and those of Panki Gangajang. More prominent were the Rajas of Sheorajpur and Sachendi, who naturally brought with them most of the Chandels, and the Raja of Nar, the chief of the Gaurs, all of whom took an active part in the attack on the entrenchment, though most of the insurgents thought more of plunder than of fighting, and were concerned rather in recovering their lost estates than in establishing a new ruling power. Practically the whole of Bithur, Jajmanu, Sheorajpur, Narwal and Rasulabad were in open rebellion, whereas the rest of the district remained comparatively quiet. The tahsildars of Narwal and Akbarpur threw in their lot with the Nana, but Afzal Ali of Ghatampur saved the treasure and records, remaining at his post throughout. Waris Ali of Derapur held out, but eventually absconded; Tirbeni Sahai of Bhognipur maintained his position till plundered by the rebels; Farid-uz-zaman of Rasulabad also remained in his pargana till the end and then disappeared; Ashraf Ali of Sheorajpur was imprisoned by the Raja, but escaped to join the British; and Aziz-ud-din, tahsildar of Sikandra was taken prisoner and compelled to remain with the Nana. When the success of the mutineers became known the rebellion spread into the furthest parts of the district, and the *zamindars* of Sheoli, Sakhrej, Khanpur, Gajner, Rasdhan and many other

places, headed by the Goshains of Sikandra, came into Cawnpore while further aid was furnished by rebels from beyond the Ganges. In this manner practically the whole Rajput community, and particularly the Chauhans, Gaurs, Chandels, Panwars and Gautams, joined in the rising: and the part they took was no inconsiderable one, since it has been averred that the English garrison could have subdued the discontented and disheartened mutineers but for the backing supplied by the *zamindars*.

Capture
of Cawn-
pore.

The Nana was not long destined to sit upon his blood-stained throne, for he had now to reckon with the avenging army of Havelock. A division under Jwala Prasad was sent off to check the advance of the British on the 7th of July and in three days they reached Aung, only to meet with utter defeat at Fatehpur on the 12th. Retreating to Aung they were again driven back in headlong confusion to the Pandu bridge, which was carried on the evening of the 15th just at the time when the helpless captives in the Bibigarh were being foully murdered at the Nana's order. This was the final act of the Maratha's rule, for the receipt of the news from Aung and the arrival of Bala Rao severely wounded, threw everything into confusion at Cawnpore. Flight was advised, but at length it was resolved to make a last stand on the grand trunk road, between Ahirwan and the city, where a strong entrenched position, defended by numerous guns, was taken up. It extended almost to the Ganges on one side and to a walled village, surrounded by mango trees, on the other. Havelock came up after midday on the 16th and immediately determined to make a flank attack on the right which succeeded admirably, the 78th Highlanders and the 64th carrying the position, taking the guns and driving the enemy back on to his centre. In the meantime the Madras Fusiliers stormed the centre, and then the whole force swept on to the right sending the rebels flying. The day was not yet won, however, for the Nana himself took up a fresh position on the road leading to cantonments, where he received strong reinforcements from the city. The British force was apparently exhausted, and the situation was critical. The enemy's cavalry and infantry then advanced to the attack, and the sight was sufficient for the wearied troops. Rushing forward

they stormed the last remaining battery, and the route of the mutineers was completed by Maude's battery. The force bivouacked on the spot, and the next morning learnt of the massacre. Moving into Cawnpore they witnessed the explosion by which the magazine was destroyed, and then came to the scene of Wheeler's heroic defence in the cantonments. The rebel army had vanished and the Nana had fled with all haste to Bithur, whence he escaped across the Ganges only to die, as is now commonly believed, a miserable death from fever and gangrene in the swamps of the Nepal Tarai. None the less the sights in Cawnpore, and above all that of the Bibigarh, stirred the soldiers to madness, and to check the troops and at the same time to remove them from the temptation to drink, Havelock marched the force on the 11th to the mission premises besides the grand trunk road at Nawabganj. On the same day Mr. Sherer, the magistrate, proclaimed the restoration of British rule in the city, but though the townspeople received the news with expressions of delight, little could as yet be done, and the occupation was purely military. In fact the attempt to re-establish the police posts was very unfortunate, since the men who volunteered for this work at Sachendi and Sheorajpur were killed by the mutineers of the 42nd N. I., who had marched from Saugar to Kalpi and thence entered this district. On the 19th of July a detachment was sent out to Bithur but found the place deserted, and after destroying the Nana's palace and taking some abandoned guns came back to camp.

On the 20th Neill arrived with a reinforcement of some 400 men, and a new entrenchment was made commanding the crossing of the Ganges; and here he was left with some 300 men, when Havelock set out for Lucknow on the 25th. Neill's first measure was to establish a military police under Captain Bruce, and then to punish those who had taken part in the massacre. The punishment meted out was exemplary; but the sufferers were few, for it would appear that but a fraction of the active participants in the atrocities of the past month were ever brought to justice. The position taken up by Neill was far from strong, but he held the river and was now assisted by a steamer which had come up from Allahabad. The station was, however, threatened by the mutineers of the

Neill at
Cawn-
pore.

42nd, who with many others were gathered in Bithur and were bold enough to raid the suburbs. Twice the steamer was sent up to Bithur, but with little effect; and it was not till Havelock returned from Unao on the 16th of August that an expedition was made against the place, which was cleared after an hour's bombardment. Police posts were now re-established at Bithur, Sheorajpur and Sachendi, with the result that the *zamindars* became alarmed, and some such as the Raja of Sachendi, expressed a desire of making their peace, though they were deterred from surrendering by the reply that they would have to stand their trial. When Outram arrived on the 16th of September additional posts had been established at Ghatampur and Bhognipur, while there was some hold on Billhaur: revenue was being collected in the tahsils near the city, and a little came in from Rasulabad, Ghatampur and Narwal. The Jumna tracts, however, were still under the influence of the Bundelkhand rebels, while the Raja of Nar, the Goshains and other leaders kept Akbarpur, Sikandra, Derapur and Rasulabad in a state of constant turmoil. The Rajas of Sheorajpur and Sachendi too remained active, and on one occasion a party from Akbarpur killed a number of policemen at Sachendi and on another some rebels from Oudh surprised the Bithur post. On the 19th of September Outram and Havelock marched for Lucknow, but the departure of the troops had little effect owing to the widespread impression caused by the fall of Delhi. This same achievement, however, filled the Doab with rebel troops, and a large party under Bakht Singh advanced into this district as far as Sheorajpur, where, on the 19th of October it was turned back by Brigadier Wilson and 600 men. On the 26th Greathed and Hope Grant brought their victorious force into Cawnpore, and soon after came Peel's Naval Brigade with Powell's column, fresh from the defeat of the Dinapur rebels at Khajua. On the 9th of November Sir Colin Campbell reached Cawnpore, hastening to the relief of Lucknow; and on the 14th the Madras Brigade under Carthew came in.

The
Gwalior
rebels.

The Commander-in-Chief had left at Cawnpore some 500 Europeans and a few Sikhs under General C. A. Windham. The position was far from secure, since the district was now threatened by the Gwalior contingent with its heavy train of

artillery, the arrival of which was eagerly awaited by the rebel Rajputs and the Sikandra Goshains. Windham was instructed to act strictly on the defensive, and accordingly he improved the defences of the entrenchment which was now rendered fairly secure. Meanwhile Tantia Topi with the mutineers crossed the Jumna on the 10th and moved to Bhognipur. There he left 1,200 men and four guns, and advanced by Akbarpur to Sheoli and Sheorajpur, each of which was strongly held. Windham had now been reinforced, and on the 17th he took up a position at the junction of the Kalpi with the grand trunk road. The force there encamped comprised detachments of the Rifle Brigade, the 34th, 82nd and 88th Foot, and a wing of the 27th N. I. under Brigadier Carthew. On the 23rd he sent off the wing of the 27th to reopen communication with Lucknow, and the same day news came of the approach of a large body of rebels from Oudh. On the 24th he marched along the Kalpi road to the canal and at the same time the enemy from Akbarpur advanced at Sachendi, thence proceeding to Bhaunti on the 25th. The next day Windham attacked the enemy and captured three guns; but on retiring the rebels drew fresh courage and a rearguard action had to be fought up to the very suburbs of the city. Though he had inflicted heavy loss on the enemy, his own had been severe, and he had displayed to Tantia Topi the weakness of his position: and the latter, bringing in his detachments from Sheoli and Sheorajpur, delivered a strong attack the next day. Carthew held his own on the right, but Windham on the left found the enemy's artillery too heavy for him. He then decided to retire, and considerable confusion resulted. Pressed back by a force estimated at fully 14,000 men, he was compelled to withdraw to the entrenchments, while Carthew held an advanced line with its centre at the theatre. This left the enemy in possession of the city: and when the fight was resumed the next day superior numbers once more told, and the whole force was slowly driven into the entrenchment.

At this juncture Sir Colin Campbell arrived, and a desperate situation was thus providentially saved. Leaving his camp, with the women and sick from Lucknow, on the morning of the 29th of November, the passage being covered

Relief of
Cawnpore.

by Peel's guns. The infantry then occupied a position facing the city from the entrenchment to the grand trunk road, and then the convoy was brought over and encamped in cantonments. The rebels still held the town and the line of the canal, and with a force computed at some 14,000 trained men at least and 40 guns, to say nothing of the swarm of irregulars, they were confident of achieving further success. The Commander-in-Chief, however, resolved to rid himself of non-combatants before engaging his foe, and therefore devoted the next three days to preparations for the despatch of the convoy and in the interval only a few unimportant skirmishes between the outposts took place. On the night of the 3rd of December the convoy started, but Sir Colin determined to let it get well away before dislodging the enemy. The latter continued fairly active, attempting to destroy the bridge by fire-boats on the 4th, while the next day a brisk cannonade was maintained all along the line. The weak point of the rebel position was the right, which rested on an open plain, the canal forming the only obstacle: and Sir Colin therefore determined to drive in that flank and at the same time to cut off their natural line of retreat along the Kalpi road. He commanded about 5,000 infantry, 600 cavalry and 35 guns. At Generalganj in the centre was Greathed, who was directed to hold his ground, while Windham in the entrenchment opened a heavy fire on the enemy's left, so as to divert their attention and enable the main attack on the right to come up unperceived. Accordingly on the 6th Sir Colin struck camp and sent it across the river, after which Windham opened fire. After a vigorous duel for some two hours Greathed advanced to the canal and opened fire on the enemy's centre, covering the advance across the canal by Walpole on the left, followed by Adrian Hope and Inglis, who stormed the enemy's position in the face of a terrific fire, which was overcome by the gallantry of the Naval Brigade and Bouchier's horse artillery. Walpole's object was to advance along the outskirts of the city, and by masking every gate to prevent the enemy from affording assistance to their right wing. This was entirely successful, for it ensured the utter defeat of the Gwalior contingent, the capture of their camp and magazines and several of their guns. The mutineers fled in haste along the Kalpi road, pursued by

cavalry and artillery for fourteen miles. The rebel centre and left were therefore shut up in Cawnpore, their sole line of retreat being along the Bithur road. The pursuit was entrusted to General Mansfield, chief of the staff, but through some blunder the troops were halted at the Subadar's Tank and the enemy were allowed to escape with all their guns. Accordingly on the 8th Sir Colin sent out Hope Grant with 2,700 men in pursuit, and the next day this force on reaching Sheorajpur learnt that the rebels were actually preparing to cross the river. Following in haste he caught them up and delivered a crushing attack on their rearguard, capturing 15 guns and inflicting terrible loss on the mutineers, who were scattered in every direction, the bulk of them flying to Bithur. Thus in two days the Commander-in-Chief had completely broken up the rebel army, taken 32 guns and killed a vast number at the cost of only 13 killed and 86 wounded. On the 11th Grant marched to Bithur, there blowing up the temple and burning the palace, at the same time recovering a large amount of treasure concealed by the Nana.

This signal blow had naturally an immense effect, for it proclaimed the inevitable supremacy of the British. The people as a whole were sick of misrule and confusion, and only those who had irretrievably committed themselves still held out. Civil charge had been already assumed by Mr. Sherer from Captain Bruce, the head of the military police, as early as the 1st of December, the papers being signed in a house that was actually under bombardment at the time. On the 18th of December, while Sir Colin Campbell was waiting for the return of his transport from Allahabad, Walpole set out on a march through the district on his way to Mainpuri. Proceeding along the Kalpi road he reached Akbarpur, where the tahsil and *thana* were re-established: and the same thing was done at Derapur and Rasulabad. A similar step was taken at Ghatampur by Mr. Griffiths, who also re-opened the police station at Sirsaul. Bhognipur and Sikandra, however, remained under the mutinous influence of Kalpi, but order was maintained by the presence at Akbarpur of a movable column under Colonel Maxwell. In the north of the district Sir Colin's march on Fatehgarh in January enabled the authorities to establish police stations in Sheorajpur and

Restora-
tion of
order.

Billhaur; but it was not till the fall of Kalpi on the 23rd of May 1858 that order was completely restored in the southern parganas. The district was still subject to occasional raids by flying parties of rebels, about the last being that of Firoz Shah at the end of 1858; but these occurrences had but a momentary effect, and from the date of Sir Hugh Rose's capture of the stronghold of Kalpi the ordinary work of administration ran on almost unimpeded. Among the minor operations mention may be made of Carthew's expedition in January 1858 from Fatehpur to Jahanabad, Bhognipur, Sikandra and thence back to Cawnpore, after driving several parties of rebels across the Jumna; and the raid from Hamirpur on the 26th of March by a body of mutineers, who burned Ghatampur, but were subsequently expelled.

Rewards
and
punish-
ments.

Allusion has been made to the punishments inflicted by Neill on the guilty rebels of Cawnpore, a task which was carried on later by Captain Bruce and Mr. Sherer. Later a fine was imposed on the city and the money devoted to the Memorial Gardens. A lengthy enquiry was made as to the circumstances of the mutiny and massacres: but the results were far from satisfactory, as sufficient evidence was not forthcoming, although the facts must have been known to an immense number of persons. It was a less difficult task to deal with the disloyal *zamindars*, especially those whom their position rendered unenviably prominent. The Rajas of Sheorajpur, Sachendi, Binaur and Nar forfeited the whole of their estates, while similar retribution fell on the owners of 61 entire villages and portions of 79 others. This left a large amount of property in the hands of Government for distribution to loyalists. The chief recipients were Ishri Prasad, the commissariat contractor, who brought supplies into the entrenchment at great risk and afterwards rendered great services to the troops, his reward consisting of land in eight villages, then assessed at Rs. 7,180; Narayan Rao Nana of Bithur, who received the village of Binaur assessed at Rs. 4,500; Pandit Amarnath, the loyal *tahsildar* of Ghazipur in the Fatehpur district, who saved the treasure and joined Havelock, obtaining Radhan and another village in Sheorajpur assessed at Rs. 2,096; Ishri Dube, the *tahsildar* of Sheorajpur, who won a similar reward; Pandit Kishan Narayan, the deputy collector of Saugor, who was given four villages

assessed at Rs. 5,000; Chaudhri Bihari Lal of Baripal, whose share was the village of Bairi in Sheorajpur; Rati Ram Tiwari of old Cawnpore, a commissariat contractor, who was given three villages in Bhognipur and Narwal, now held by Babu Kundan Lal; and the Rajput *zamindars* engaged in the defence of Rasulabad on the 25th April 1858. These included Kunwar Chhatar Singh of the Etawah district, who received six Rasulabad villages assessed at Rs. 6,643; Kinnar Singh of Khanpur Dilwal, who got five villages paying revenue Rs. 3,322; and Chaudhri Lachhman Singh of Mainpuri, who obtained Teonga in Bhognipur and Ghusremau in Cawnpore. Minor rewards were given to many others, such as the *zamindars* of Auran and Rangaon and several inhabitants of Makanpur who sheltered the Chandler family; and some loyal native officers, specially Sheikh Bahadur Ali, *risaldar* of the 8th Cavalry, who received Panki Bahadurnagar and Nar Khurd, still held by his son, Afzal Ali of Maswanpur, and Khalsa Singh, a *subadar* in the Bengal Artillery, who was given half of Panki Gangaganj.

Since the restoration of order nothing has occurred to Subse-
disturb the peace of Cawnpore with the relatively unimportant quent
exception of the plague riots in 1900. The record of the history.
past half-century is of one constant progress, in which the
principal features have been the development of communi-
cations and canal irrigation, the periodical revisions of the
land revenue and, above all, the marvellous growth of the city
as a centre of industry and trade. These, as well as the occa-
sional calamities of famine, have been dealt with in other
parts of this volume, as also have the chronicles of the various
branches of administration.

GAZETTEER.
OF
CAWNPORE.
—
DIRECTORY.

GAZETTEER

OF

CAWNPORE.

DIRECTORY

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DIRECTORY.

[Akbarpur.

AKBARPUR, *Tahsil* AKBARPUR.

The town of Akbarpur stands in 26° 23' N. and 79° 57' E., at a distance of 26 miles west-south-west from Cawnpore. It is some three miles to the north of the Kalpi road, with which it is connected by two metalled branches, one taking off near Barah and the other near the Lalpur station on the Indian Midland Railway. Unmetalled roads run westwards from the south of the town leading to Deraipur, Rasdhan and Pukhrayan, while from the north a metalled road, eight miles in length, goes to Rura station on the East Indian line. To the east of the town flows the Akbarpur distributary of the Etawah branch canal and beyond this is the main channel, now only used as an escape. The place is built in the midst of a lowlying tract and the drainage is somewhat defective, the water collecting in a large depression which immediately adjoins the site on the north-west: but considerable relief has been afforded by the excavation of a cut leading south-westwards into the Sengar.

The town is fairly well built, possessing a goodly number of brick houses, but has declined in prosperity during the past fifty years. The population was 5,485 in 1847, rising to 5,933 in 1853, though it dropped to 5,497 in 1865 and to 4,911 in 1872. There was a slight improvement in 1881, when the total was 5,131, but it again fell to 4,646 in 1891, while at the last census the number of inhabitants was 4,734, of whom 2,241 were females: there were 3,264 Hindus, 1,426 Musalmans and 44 of other religions, mainly Christians. Akbarpur possesses a police station, a post-office, a munsif's court, a registration office, a branch dispensary opened in 1890, a bonded warehouse and a cattle-pound. The educational institutions comprise a middle vernacular school, a lower primary school and an aided school for girls.

The place is said to have been originally called Gurai Khara, and the name was changed to Akbarpur during the reign of Akbar by one Kunwar Singh, a Bais *risaldar*, who may have been the founder of the new town. It became the

capital of a pargana, and under the Nawab Wazir was the seat of an *amil*, one of these officials named Sital Shukul being the builder of a fine masonry tank in the town. A second tank of later date owes its origin to a Kalwar named Chhabba. There are several mosques, but none is of any antiquity or special architectural merit.

Akbarpur has been administered since 1861 under Act XX of 1861 : section 34 of the Police Act V of 1861, and the Village Sanitation Act, 1892, also are in force. The total area of the revenue *mauza* is 1,602 acres, of which some 707 acres are cultivated, and this is divided into five *mahals*, owned by Banias and Chamars, the demand being Rs. 2,200. The *chaukidari* area, comprising the inhabited site, is 128 acres. It contains 1,307 houses, of which 701 were assessed to taxation in 1907, the average income for that and the two preceding years being Rs. 1,061 which gave an incidence of Re. 1-7-10 per assessed house and Re. 0-3-7 per head of population. The total receipts, including the initial balance averaged Rs. 1,260, and the expenditure for the same period was Rs. 1,130 annually, the main items being Rs. 546 for the maintenance of the town police, Rs. 347 for the upkeep of a conservancy staff and Rs. 182 for local improvements. Akbarpur is a fairly wealthy place, being the chief commercial centre of the tahsil, and the markets held twice a week are of considerable local importance.

AKBARPUR Tahsil.

This tahsil occupies the centre of the district and forms a compact block of country between the Rind on the east, which separates it from Cawnpore, and the Sengar on the west, beyond which lies Bhognipur, that tahsil also forming the southern boundary with Ghatampur. To the north and north-east is the Sheorajpur tahsil and to the north-west Derapur. The total area is 158,051 acres or 246·92 square miles.

In ancient times Akbarpur was divided between the parganas of Barah and Shahpur, the headquarters of the latter being transferred to Akbarpur after the abandonment of Shahpur on account of the encroachment of the Jumna, while

Barah, which for a long time was the property of Mughals and is still mainly held by their descendants, was united with Akbarpur before the cession. The subsequent changes have been small, eight villages being received from Ghatampur and two from Bithur, while nine were transferred to Sheorajpur at the settlement of 1840.

The population of the tahsil has fluctuated considerably during the past fifty years, but on the whole there has been a distinct increase. The total rose from 100,898 in 1853 to 104,001 in 1865, and though it had fallen to 101,171 in 1872 by the next census it had risen to 109,901. In 1891, however, a marked decrease was observed, the number of inhabitants being 102,256; but by 1901 the recovery was almost complete, the total being 107,729 persons, of whom 49,861 were females. This gives a density of 440 to the square mile, a figure that is well below the general average for the district. Of the whole number 100,333 were Hindus, 7,266 Musalmans, 117 Aryas and 13 Christians. The principal Hindu castes are Ahirs, 14,584; Chamars, 14,485; Brahmans, 13,194; Rajputs, 11,783; and Kachhis, 5,991. After these come Gadariyas, Kahars, Kurmis, Telis, Lodhs and Boriyas. The Rajputs are drawn from many different clans; but the chief are the Chauhans, who numbered 3,677, and claim kinship with the great families of Mainpuri. Others found in strength are Kachhwahas, Gaurs, Chandels, Sengars, Parihars, and Bais. The Musalman population consists principally of Sheikhs, Pathans, Faqirs, and Behnas, though many others are represented. The tahsil is mainly agricultural, and according to the census returns 72.5 per cent. of the inhabitants were directly dependent on agriculture and 4.4 per cent. were classed as general labourers. There are no manufactures of importance and the chief article of export is fire-wood, which is despatched to Cawnpore in large quantities for consumption in the mills. There are altogether 205 villages, including the town of Akbarpur. Several of these contain large populations, those with over two thousand inhabitants comprising Barah, Mandauli, Gajner, Sarwan Khera and Baisaikpur, while Rura is a place of considerable size and importance. The markets, fairs, post-offices and schools of the tahsil will be found in the appendix.

Means of communication are excellent, as the northern half is traversed by the main line of the East Indian Railway, with stations at Maitha and Rura, and the southern by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, with stations at Paman and Lalpur. Through the centre runs the metalled road from Cawnpore to Kalpi, from which two branches take off at Barah and Lalpur and connect it with Akbarpur, whence a metalled road runs northwards to Rura, the latter place being similarly connected with Derapur. In addition to these unmetalled roads, for the most part in very fair condition, run from Akbarpur to Derapur, Rasdhan and Gajner, whence branches lead to Pukhrayan, Musanagar and Ghatampur. From Gajner runs a road to Sachendi, passing through Sarwan Khara, where it is linked by a short cut with the Paman station and the Kalpi road. In the north unmetalled roads lead from Rura to Rasulabad and Sheoli, and from Tigain to Mandauli and Sheorajpur.

For administrative purposes the tahsil forms a subdivision in the charge of a full-powered officer on the district staff, while the civil jurisdiction is entrusted to the munsif of Akbarpur. There are police stations at the tahsil headquarters and at Gajner, but a number of villages in the east belong to the Sachendi *thana* and several in the north to that of Sheoli.

The rivers of the tahsil form the chief physical features and determine the nature of the country. The Rind enters Akbarpur in the extreme north, and after traversing the tahsil for a considerable distance bends eastwards to the Cawnpore boundary, which it follows for the remainder of its course to the borders of Ghatampur. It has a deep bed containing a small amount of alluvial *tarai* land, above which rise the high banks, scored with numberless ravines and in most places covered with *dhak* jungle of much commercial value. Beyond the ravines there lies on the either bank a stretch of level upland with a light and often sandy soil of a distinctive reddish colour, closely cultivated and irrigable from wells, the water-level being from 25 to 30 feet below the surface. The central portion of the tahsil is of a heterogeneous character. In the north the Rind red soil gives place

to a rich consistent loam of great fertility and highly developed; but towards the centre the soil stiffens and the level sinks, till in the south the land becomes swampy and ill-drained, while in the east and south-east there are vast stretches of *usar* and *dhak* jungle, and the scattered patches of cultivation are badly infected with *kans* and other noxious grasses and weeds—a certain indication of waterlogging. The natural drainage lines are inadequate, and the trouble is increased by the canal channels and the obstruction caused by the railway line. There are numerous *jhils* in this tract and their overflow finds its way southwards across country, ultimately forming the Non. This stream has several sources, the westernmost branch, known as the Neor, rising in a swamp at Tilaunchi near Mohana, while the Non proper, issuing from a large lake in the village of Rasulpur Gogamau, is fed by two other *nalas* that rise near Nariha and Manethu. The two main channels unite on the southern boundary and pass southwards into Ghatampur. The western portion of the tahsil comprises the valley of the Sengar, which for a long distance forms the boundary, the Bhognipur tahsil having but the single village of Mawar on this side of the stream. Near the river the soil is a light and gritty loam of a peculiar pink hue, locally called *rapra*; it is very fully cultivated, but is almost wholly lacking in means of irrigation. This terminates in a wide belt of deep and precipitous ravines, generally devoid of vegetation and quite unculturable; and there is no alluvial land in the bed of the river.

At the settlement of 1840 the cultivated area was 77,442 acres, and thirty years later this had risen to 85,289. The figure was maintained for about a decade and then declined, owing to the spread of *kans* and the abandonment of the inferior lands. Matters reached their climax in 1896-97, when only 72,662 acres were under cultivation, and from that year onwards there was a steady improvement. During the five years ending with 1906-07 the average area under tillage was 83,555 acres or 52·87 per cent. of the whole, and in 1904-05 this was considerably exceeded. The barren area, including 4,375 acres under water and that occupied by villages, railways, roads and the like, was 48,529 acres or 30·7 per cent. of the entire tahsil; and the culturable area embraced 25,967

acres, though from this should be deducted 4,652 acres of groves and 2,201 of **current fallow**. The rest is for the most styled old fallow, but the bulk of it is of a very inferior description and its agricultural value of the slightest.

As a whole, the tahsil is adequately provided with means of irrigation, the average area watered being 38,380 acres or 45·93 per cent. of the land cultivated. Of this the canals supply 26,374, wells 10,631 and other sources 1,375 acres. The Etawah branch of the Ganges canal passes through the entire length of the tahsil, but at Banna Jakha its waters are diverted into the Ghatampur branch and the Akbarpur and Reona distributaries. The last gives off several minors such as the Tilaunchi, Mohana and Mangta, which irrigate the south-central tract; while the Ghatampur branch, with the Lohari and Sarwan Khara distributaries, waters the country between the Rind and the Non, and has proved a great blessing to the tract through which it passes. The canals have to a large extent supplanted wells, which are now of little importance save in the Rind country and a group of villages in the south-east corner. They are of the usual type with a cylinder of bricks set in mud, and their number has been more than doubled in the past thirty years. Along the Sengar wells cannot be constructed, save at great expense, owing to the depth of the water-level, and the villages on the banks of this stream must be considered as precarious.

Of the two main harvests the *rabi* on an average occupies the larger area, covering 51,317 acres as against 48,642 sown in the *kharif*; but much depends on the character of the season, and the positions are frequently reversed. Of late years there has been a marked increase in the *rabi* area, owing to the spread of double-cropping, which now extends to 15,215 acres or 18·21 per cent. of the net cultivation, whereas in 1870 the figure was only 3,125. This is due in large measure to the extension of canals, which are also responsible for the improvement in the quality of the crops grown. The chief spring staples are wheat, which by itself covers 16·28, and in combination with gram or barley 18·71 per cent. of the area sown for this harvest, while there is also a certain amount of *gujari*, or a mixture of wheat with barley and gram; barley, which alone and in combination makes up 53·24 per cent.,

and gram, constituting by itself 4·01 per cent. The remainder consist in peas, some 450 acres of poppy and a little tobacco, other garden crops being almost unknown. In the *kharif* 43·76 per cent. of the area is taken up by *juar* mixed with *arhar*, 21·55 by cotton and *arhar*, and 4·64 by *bajra* and *arhar*. For the rest rice makes up 11 and maiz 10·7 per cent. : the former is chiefly of the early variety, and is rapidly growing in popularity, while the increase in the cultivation of maize is even more remarkable. Indigo averages 1,040 acres, but is fast disappearing : a number of factories were started between 1870 and 1880, but the industry has now collapsed. Sugarcane remains stationary with an average of 941 acres, and *pan* gardens are to be seen in Fatehpur Roshnai, Sidhamau, Tigain, Jalalpur and a few other villages.

At the recent settlement the total area included in holdings was 87,389 acres and of this 12 per cent. was proprietary cultivation, 57·4 was held by occupancy tenants, 28 by tenants-at-will and 2·6 per cent. was rent free. The area of *sir* and *khudkasht* has greatly decreased during the past thirty years, owing to the extensive transfers that have taken place; but on the other hand occupancy holdings have remained almost stationary, comprising 50,188 acres as compared with 51,367 in 1870. Rents are paid in cash, save in the case of nine acres, the average rental for the whole area being Rs. 5·16 per acre, that of occupancy tenants being 5·01, and that of tenants-at-will Rs. 5·16 : whereas at the preceding settlement the averages were Rs. 4·26 and Rs. 4·28, respectively. There is no great difference between the rents paid by the various castes, the rate pending principally on the quality of the land : and this same fact accounts for the apparently slight advantage enjoyed by occupancy tenants, since the latter almost invariably hold the better fields. The three principal cultivating castes are Ahirs, who hold 21·5, Brahmans with 21·2 and Rajputs with 20·2 per cent. of the tenant-held area; and next come Gadariyas with 5·5, Chamars with 5·1, Kachhis with 4·5 and Musalmans with 3·5 per cent. Kachhis pay on an average Rs. 6·42 per acre, Brahmans and Rajputs about Rs. 5 and Ahirs Rs. 4·91, their lands being chiefly in the inferior western tracts.

At the present time the 205 villages of the tahsil are subdivided into 629 *mahals*, and of the latter 176 are held in single and 350 in joint *zamindari* tenure, while 68 are perfect and 35 imperfect *pattidari*. Originally Akbarpur seems to have been held by the Meos, whose strongholds were at Kumbhi on the Sengar and at Kukchi and Rahaniapur. They were overthrown partly by the Rajputs and partly by the Mughal colonists of the old Barah pargana. The first Rajput invasion was that of the Gaurs, who spread into this tahsil from Derapur and took possession of the north-western portion: subsequently came the Bais, who established themselves along the Rind and made their home at Rahaniapur, and then the Chauhans who came from Mainpuri and seized 36 villages in the south-east. Other immigrants included the Chandels from beyond the Rind, some Panwars from Bhognipur, a family of Agarwal Banias, who acquired an estate in the days of Akbar, and a second colony of Bais led by a military officer named Kunwar Singh, who probably founded the town of Akbarpur. Some of the Chauhans and Chandels became Musalmans, but their descendants still retain many Hindu customs; while recently some of them have been won back to Hinduism by the Arya Samaj. The old proprietors seem to have fared worse in Akbarpur than in any other part of the district during the days of Oudh rule, and the various farmers who contracted for the pargana under Almas Ali Khan endeavoured to form estates for themselves, with such success that by the cession more than half the area had passed from the hands of the ancestral *zamindars*. Much of the injustice done then and in later years was rectified by the special commission, and in 1840 the old proprietors held some 62 per cent. of the area; though in the following thirty years the transfers were very numerous, and at the settlement of 1870 less than one-third was left to the hereditary landowners. This process has since continued, for during the currency of that settlement 47,801 acres changed hands, the largest purchasers being the Khattris of Cawnpore, the Banias of Akbarpur and resident Brahman money-lenders. Brahmans are now the largest proprietors, followed by Rajputs, Banias, Musalmans, Kayasths and Ahirs, the last having remained almost undisturbed for many centuries among the ravines of the Sengar. The question of transfers is closely

connected with the fiscal history of the tahsil : and this is amply illustrated by the settlement of the revenue demand at successive settlements, as shown in the appendix.*

AMRODHA, *Tahsil* BHOGNIPUR.

An old Musalman town, also known as Malikpur Ain, standing on the high ground above the Jumna, in 26° 12' N. and 79° 47' E., on a short branch leading from the old Mughal road, about five miles south-west from Pukhrayan and 42 miles from Cawnpore. Roads lead from Amrodha to the Kalpi road and Chaunra station on the south, and to Satti and Shahjahanpur on the Mughal road to the north-west. Adjoining Amrodha on the west is the now ruined town of Shahpur, which was once a place of considerable importance and the capital of a large pargana. The place was damaged by the Jumna and abandoned, but the ruins of many tombs, temples and mosques speak of former magnificence. Beyond Shahpur is Teonga, once the residence of a powerful family of Kayasths. Nothing is known of the history of Amrodha, but for a long time it was a flourishing market till the diversion of the trade to Pukhrayan. This caused its decline, with the result that the operations of Act XX of 1856, introduced in 1861, were withdrawn from the place about 1883. The population in 1847 numbered 1,665 persons but rapidly increased, reaching 2,983 by 1872; it fell to 2,414 in 1881 but rose again to 2,531 ten years later, while in 1901 it was 3,027, including 721 Musalmans. The place has benefited by the introduction of canal irrigation, supplied by the Sikandra distributary : the village lands cover 437 acres, assessed at Rs. 730, and are owned by Musalmans and Banias. Amrodha possesses a post-office and an upper primary school. The name of Malikpur is possibly derived from Malik Ladhan, who is said to have conquered the country in the days of Ala-ud-din Khilji.

ASALATGANJ, *Tahsil* BILHAUR.

This very large agricultural village stands in 26° 41' N. and 79° 52' E., on the unmetalled road from Bilhaur to

* Appendix table IX and X.

Rasulabad, at a distance of five miles from the latter, 17 miles from the tahsil headquarters and about 38 miles north-west from Cawnpore. The village lands, which are 3,838 acres in extent, are watered by a short branch of the Kansua distributary known as the Asalatganj minor: there is a good deal of *usar*, and only 1,490 acres are under cultivation. The revenue is Rs. 5,493, and the proprietors are Musalmans, Marwaris and Kayasths. Save for its size the place has no claim to mention; the bazar from which it derives its name is of purely local importance, and the only industry is cotton-printing. Markets are held twice a week: the village also possesses a post-office, an upper primary school and an aided school for girls. The population in 1847 numbered 2,544 souls, but has since increased: it was 3,497 in 1872 and 3,325 in 1891, while at the last census it had fallen to 2,933, including 265 Musalmans and a large Brahman community.

BANIPARA, *Tahsil* DERAPUR.

This village, called Banipara Maharaj to distinguish it from the adjacent villages of Banipara Jauhar and Banipara Janai, stands in the extreme east of the tahsil in 26° 31' N. and 79° 53' E., on the road from Derapur to Sheoli, at a distance of eleven miles north-east from the former, 30 miles from Cawnpore and five miles north from Rura station, with which it is connected by a road leading to Rasulabad. The place is chiefly noted for its ancient temple of Mahadeo, the scene of a large fair on the occasion of the Sheoratri festival. The fair in former days was of much commercial importance; but latterly it has lost this character, though a certain amount of petty trading is still carried on. Markets are held here twice a week and are well attended. The population in 1847 numbered 1,681 souls, and of late years has increased steadily: it was 2,132 in 1872 and 2,387 in 1891, while at the last census there were 2,812 inhabitants, including many Brahmans and 222 Musalmans. The village possesses a post-office and an upper primary school. The area is 2,426 acres, of which some 1,650 are cultivated, irrigation being obtained from the left Juria distributary of the Etawah branch canal: the revenue demand is Rs. 4,600, and the owner is a Musalman.

BARAH, *Tahsil* AKBARPUR.

A small Musalman town standing in $26^{\circ} 22'$ N. and $80^{\circ} 1'$ E., on the south side of the main road from Cawnpore to Kalpi, at a distance of 23 miles west-south-west from the district headquarters, and four miles east from Akbarpur, with which it is connected by a branch metalled road taking off from the Kalpi road about a mile west of the town. Barah is said to have been settled by some Mughals under one Qutb Beg Khan at an early date, and in the course of time they acquired 36 villages from the Meos, which by the days of Akbar formed a separate pargana. The Mughals rose to a position of prominence during the period of Oudh rule, and acquired, in some instances by questionable methods, a large property, being employed as farmers of the revenue. They still own Barah and other villages. Barah itself is divided into fifteen *mahals*, with a total area of 3,472 acres and a revenue demand of Rs. 3,750 ; about 1,925 acres are cultivated, a good deal of the land being swampy to the east near the river Non, though the western half is better, and is irrigated from the Tilaunchi and Barah minors of the Etawah branch canal.

The population in 1847 numbered 2,450 souls, and had risen by 1872 to 2,879, and though it had fallen to 2,634 in 1891 at the last census it was 2,890, including 971 Musalmans. The place possesses a lower primary school, a road bungalow and an encamping-ground, adjoining which is a fine masonry tank constructed by Sital Shukul, who also built the tank at Akbarpur.

BARAI GARHU, *Tahsil* NARWAL.

An important village standing in $26^{\circ} 13'$ N. and $80^{\circ} 23'$ E., on the south side of the road from Narwal to Sarh, at a distance of some three miles south-west from the former and 18 miles from Cawnpore. The population in 1872 numbered 2,701 souls but has since declined, as in 1891 it was 2,598 and at the last census 2,512, of whom 314 were Musalmans. None the less it is a flourishing place, and its market, held twice a week, is well attended, being one of the principal cattle bazars in the district. The place derives its name and its celebrity from the cultivation of *pan*, which is extensively carried on by

the side of a large tank to the south of the village, the *pan* here produced beng exported to Cawnpore and more distant markets. The cultivation is in the hands of Barais and Tambolis, but the owners of the village are Brahmans and Rajputs of the Bais, Chauhan and Rathor clans: the area is 1,913 acres, of which some 1,110 are under tillage, and the revenue demand is Rs. 4,500. Barai Garhu possesses an upper primary school and a post-office: a small fair takes place here annually during Bhadon in honour of Gahauli Devi. The provisions of the Village Sanitation Act, 1892, are in force here.

BARIPAL, *Tahsil* GHATAMPUR.

This large village stands in the south of the tahsil, close to the right bank of the Non, in $26^{\circ} 2' N.$ and $80^{\circ} 12' E.$, at the junction of the unmetalled road from Srinagar and Sajeti to Aemauli in the Fatehpur district with that from Rampur on the Jumna to Kora, and with that leading from Bhadeona on the Rind; it is ten miles south from Ghatampur and 36 miles from the district headquarters. The place is noteworthy as the headquarters of a well known Kurmi family which owns a large estate in this neighbourhood, now in the possession of the widows of Durga Prasad. Baripal is said to have been the first place settled by the Kurmis, and from it they spread over the south and south-west of the tahsil. Its situation has made it a market of some importance, especially for *ghi*, grain and cotton. The population rose from 1,115 in 1847 to 1,827 in 1891, while at the last census it was 1,847, including 188 Musalmans. There is a lower primary school, but nothing else of interest in the village. The total area is 2,374 acres, of which some 1,310 are cultivated, and the revenue demand is Rs. 2,005.

BHOGNIPUR, *Tahsil* BHOGNIPUR.

The place which gives its name to the Bhognipur tahsil, but is no longer the headquarters, is a small village standing in $26^{\circ} 12' N.$ and $79^{\circ} 49' E.$, at the junction of the Mughal road with the metalled road to Kalpi, some 41 miles south-west from Cawnpore. The village is said to have been founded about three hundred years ago by a Kayasth named Bhog Chand,

who excavated the large tank adjoining the site and called the Bhogsagar. Since the removal of the tahsili to Pukhrayan the place has become quite unimportant. The population in 1872 was 1,113, but had fallen by 1901 to 881, of whom 226 were Musalmans. The latter own the village in conjunction with Brahmans, Kayasths and Banias : the area is 894 acres and the revenue Rs. 1,069. There is a branch post-office here and an encamping-ground with a storehouse attached, as well as an inspection bungalow on the Bhognipur distributary.

BHOGNIPUR Tahsil.

This tahsil occupies the south-west portion of the district, and is the largest of the eight subdivisions. It is bounded throughout on the west and south by the river Jumna, which separates it from the district of Jalaun and the Baoni State. On the north-west it marches for a few miles with Etawah, while to the north lie Derapur and Akbarpur and on the east the Ghatampur tahsil. The total area is liable to vary owing to the changes in the course of the Jumna, but the fluctuations are very small : the average for the five years ending in 1906 was 214,753 acres, or 377.74 square miles.

The pargana was originally known as Shahpur, being called after the ruined village of that name on the banks of the Jumna; but Shahpur also embraced large portions of the modern Akbarpur, Ghatampur and Derapur. It was not till the cession of the district to the British that the pargana of Bhognipur Musanagar was formed as a dependency of Akbarpur, and the head treasury remained at the latter place for seven years. The boundaries were altered in 1840 by the transfer of 11 villages to Ghatampur in exchange for five received from that tahsil; but the most important change was that which took place in 1894, when the greater portion of the old Sikandra pargana was assigned to Bhognipur, involving an addition of 56,747 acres comprised in 77 villages.

The tahsil is administered as a subdivision in the charge of a full-powered officer on the district staff and a tahsildar stationed at Pukhrayan, which for some years has been the headquarters. The original civil jurisdiction is vested in the munsif of Akbarpur. There are police stations at Bhognipur,

Musanagar and Sikandra; but their circles do not coincide with the limits of the tahsil, and a number of villages are included in the *thanas* of Gajner, Akbarpur and Derapur.

The population of the present tahsil at the early enumerations cannot be ascertained. The old Bhognipur contained 101,562 inhabitants in 1853, and this rose to 102,041 in 1865 and to 104,076 in 1872. Owing to the famine of 1877 and other causes a great decrease then took place, the total in 1881 being 88,081. The subsequent recovery was very rapid, for in 1891 the population was 96,575 that of the existing subdivision being 120,806, and at the last census the latter figure had risen to 141,346, including 66,871 females and giving a density of 384 to the square mile. This is a low figure, and far less than the district average, although it is higher than that of Ghatampur, which has suffered from similar causes. Classified by religions the population included 128,919 Hindus, 12,330 Musalmans, 82 Aryas, 11 Christians and four Jains. Among the Hindus Chamars largely predominate, numbering 25,652 persons, and these are followed by Kurnis with 17,819, this caste being far more numerous than in any other part of the district. Then come Ahirs, 16,587; Brahmans, 14,177; Rajputs, 7,934; and Gadariyas 5,527. Other castes occurring in numbers exceeding two thousand are Banias, Koris, Mallahs, Lohars, Dhamks and Telis. The Rajput community, which is unusually small, comprises representatives of many clans, the chief being Kachhwahas, Chauhans, Rathors, Panwars, Chandels and Bais. More than half the Musalmans are Sheikhs, of whom 6,271 were enumerated, while the remainder are principally Pathans, Saiyids and Faqirs.

There are altogether 320 villages and none of these can be described as a town with the possible exception of Musanagar and the adjoining site of Ghausganj; there are, however, many large villages, the chief among them being Rasdhan, Sikandra, Anrodha and Pukhrayan, while Baraur also contains over two thousand inhabitants. The local markets have declined with the advent of the railway, which has diverted the trade to Pukhrayan the only place of any commercial importance; and the essentially agricultural character of the tahsil is illustrated by the fact that nearly 75 per cent. of the people are directly dependent on cultivation, while another 6.6 per cent.

come under the head of general labour. There is a little cotton-weaving, but the industry is in a declining state.

Through the eastern half of the tahsil runs the main line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, with stations at Malasa, Pukhrayan and Chaunra, and parallel to this runs the metalled road from Cawnpore to Kalpi. This road is crossed at Bhognipur by the old Mughal road from Kora to Etawah, passing through Musanagar, Chaparghata, Zainpur and Sikandra. A number of inferior unmetalled roads link up all places of importance, the chief being those leading from the tahsil headquarters to Gajner, to Akbarpur, to Dohrapur and to Deorahat on the Jumna; and from Sikandra to Derapur, Akbarpur and Makanpur, the last continuing southwards to the Jumna at Bijamau. The ferries over that river are shown in the appendix, where also will be found lists of the schools, markets, fairs and post-offices of the tahsil.

The Jumna and Sengar naturally form the dominating features of the country. The latter, after separating the tahsil from Akbarpur, turns southwards at Muhammadpur and cuts through the uplands to discharge itself into the Jumna at Keotra near Musanagar. Throughout its course it is fringed with ravines, which extend inland for about a mile, interspersed with a fair amount of more or less undulating culturable soil of the yellowish sandy type known as *bhura*, *kaswa* or *pilia*. Towards the confluence the ravines grow deeper and more rugged, the landscape being wild in the extreme. In former days the tract was the favourite haunt of the highwayman, and it was a common proverb that what was gained by the trader at Delhi was lost at Chaparghata. The ravines of the Jumna are of immense size, rising to a height of seventy feet or more above the river and extending inland for fully four miles. In the immediate vicinity of the river is a narrow alluvial fringe of recent deposit known as *tir*, liable to annual fluctuations but ordinarily too small to be of much importance, such lands being let by the *biswa* and cultivated in minute patches. Above this lies a broad uneven stretch of *kachhar* of a fairly permanent character, but subject to occasional inundation. Similar soil is to be found along the Sengar for a distance of four or

five miles above the confluence; higher up there is but little alluvium, but the few patches that exist are distinguished by the name of *kondar*. The alluvial *mahals* of the pargana are 36 in number, and are assessed in the ordinary manner: the last quinquennial revision took place in 1907, when the revenue was fixed at Rs. 2,153. The sloping fields among the Jumna ravines are usually of a hard gravelly soil called *rakar*, interspersed with sandy *bhura* or else with more or less level stretches of *kabar*, a sticky black clay that rapidly hardens and breaks into fissures, and in that state is quite impervious to the plough. - Near the Sengar, as it approaches the Jumna, the *rakar* is of a richer reddish kind known for distinction as *udhra*. Above the ravines of the Jumna the soil is generally of the variety known as *parwa*, which occurs mostly in level plateaux and is a mixture of loam and red sand of a somewhat brittle nature. This gives place, when once clear of the ravines and undulations, to a level expanse of loam which occupies all the centre of the tahsil, extending to the *pilia* tract above the Sengar. Its agricultural value improves as the distance from the confluence increases; and at the same time the land near the Sengar in the north is decidedly better than that towards the Jumna in the south, where the soil often has the characteristics of *bhur*. The level is broken in the west by a so-called *jhil*, the Sanao, which runs through the old Sikandra pargana at a distance ranging from one to three miles from the Jumna, of which it probably represents an abandoned channel, and joins that river near Khartala. At first it is broad and shallow, with a culturable bed in which the soil is a stiff loam or clay, and slightly shelving banks of gritty sand and gravel, partly cultivated and partly overgrown with bushes. Further eastwards the banks grow steeper, and a small watercourse in the centre gradually expands until it first interrupts and finally does away with cultivation, converting the lower reaches into an ordinary ravine. Most of the larger Jumna ravines possess local names, but there is no other drainage channel of any importance in the interior save an irregular broken line of slight depressions containing a small amount of swamp and *usar*, which runs in a north-westerly direction from Pukhrayan. The

villages east of the Sengar adjoining Ghatampur have a somewhat stiff soil, occasionally of a swampy nature, but in the main of a good quality.

Mention should be made of the pests in the shape of *kans* and *kus* grass, which periodically infect the whole tahsil and especially the riverain soils. They come and go, but in the worst tracts the only cure for *kans* is said to be fifteen years of fallow. At times too the weed known as *jari* or *jari* is much in evidence, and though its berries are used for food its extirpation from the fields entails a great amount of labour.

The cultivated area is liable to fluctuate to a very marked extent according to the nature of the season. In 1870 it was as much as 145,367 acres, and the figure remained at about this level till 1881, when a decline set in, the lowest point being reached in 1896-97. It improved again, though the old standard has not yet been regained, the average for the five years ending with 1906-07 being 142,577 acres or 58.98 per cent. of the entire tahsil. This is a high proportion and is exceeded only in Ghatampur, but the cultivation and crops are generally inferior to those of the rest of the district. The barren area is 66,939 acres or 27.69 per cent., including 6,925 acres under water and the land permanently occupied by roads and buildings; but there still remains some 47,000 acres of sterile waste, principally ravines and barren sand. Apart from 3,551 acres of groves, the smallest proportion in the district, and 2,962 acres of current fallow, 25,725 acres are described as culturable: but although a considerable amount of this has at one time or other been under tillage, its value as arable land is extremely small and its profitable reclamation highly problematical.

Owing to the great depth of the water-level in almost every part of the tahsil the irrigated area bears but a low proportion to the net cultivation, averaging 38,715 acres or 27.15 per cent. Of this only 163 acres are supplied from wells and 829 from tanks and rivers, so that the tract depends mainly, if not entirely, on the canals, which water 97.41 per cent. of the land irrigating. This fact illustrates the extraordinary improvement in the economical condition of Bhognipur that has taken place within the last few years, for in former days the utmost that could be irrigated was

barely 3,000 acres. With a spring level varying from 60 to 80 feet below the surface the construction of wells is very difficult and the cost of working them almost prohibitive. Even now in most villages the women have to co-operate in drawing water for domestic purposes, and in Amrodha the wells are worked by bullocks provided by joint subscription on the part of the residents. The Bhognipur branch canal first reached the tahsil about twenty years ago and its distributaries now afford water to most villages, the chief exceptions being the strip along the Jumna cut off by the Sanao, a few isolated patches along the Sengar and the tract between that river and the railway line, where the lands that lie within reach of the tail-ends of the distributaries enjoy but a scanty and precarious supply. Ample proof of the utility of the canal was given in 1906, when a fair harvest was raised in spite of the complete failure of the crops in the unirrigated lands. The main lines are the Rasdhan distributary in the north, giving off the Baraur, Atwa and other minors; and the Sikandra, which at Zainpur gives off the Sathra and Bhognipur distributaries, the latter in turn supplying the Akohri. The country east of the Sengar is irrigated by the Akbarpur distributary of the Etawah branch, which tails into the Jumna just below Ghausganj.

Double-cropping is less extensively practised than in other tahsils of the district, the average *do-fasli* area being but 15,747 acres or 11·04 per cent. of the net cultivation, though even this shows an immense advance during the last thirty years. Of the two harvests the *rabi* is usually the larger, though their relative positions depend on the season. On an average the area under spring crops is 77,024 acres, though in 1904-05 it was over 100,000 and in the next year it was no more than 57,883 acres. The *kharif* is subject to similar fluctuations, and averages 75,238 acres. The chief *rabi* staple is wheat, which by itself occupies 6·92 and in combination with gram or barley 30·66 per cent. of the area sown, while gram alone covers 18·46, and barley, either alone or in combination with gram, 38·56 per cent. About 100 acres are under poppy, and garden crops are seldom to be seen: indeed a peculiar feature of the tahsil is the comparative absence of *gauhan* cultivation, or of any marked

difference between the outlying fields and those close to the homestead. In the *kharif* the only crops of importance are *juar*, *bajra* and cotton, in each case mixed with *arhar*, these occupying 41·43, 21·19 and 23·16 per cent., respectively. Rice cultivation is on the increase and now averages 6·17 per cent., as also is that of maize, 1·82 per cent. There are some 300 acres under sugarcane and about the same amount of indigo, though the area is rapidly decreasing.

The standard of cultivation is no higher than the quality of the crops, except in the case of Kachhi holdings. Kurmis are the chief cultivating caste, occupying 20·3 per cent. of the tenantheld area, and pay Rs. 4·48 per acre, as compared with Rs. 5·98 in the case of Kachhis, and a general average of Rs. 4·05. Brahmans and Ahirs hold some 16 per cent. apiece, the average rental being Rs. 3·49 and Rs. 3·08, respectively; and then follow Rajputs with 9·8 and Chambars with 6·2 per cent., the remainder being principally in the hands of Gadariyas, Musalmans and Mallahs, of whom the last are found on the river banks and pay but Rs. 2·23 per acre of very inferior land. At the recent settlement the area included in holdings was 145,023 acres, and of these no less than 15·8 per cent. was cultivated by proprietors, a higher figure than in any other part of the district. Tenants-at-will hold 29·9 and those with rights of occupancy 52·2 per cent., while the small remainder is rent-free. Occupancy holdings have declined to some extent during the past thirty years, the area in 1870 being 82,232 acres as compared with 75,762 at the present time.

The revenue demand as fixed at successive settlements is shown in the appendix, but owing to the changes in the area no exact comparison can be drawn between the various assessments.* The 320 villages are now subdivided in 824 *mahals*, of which 243 are single and 411 joint *zamindari*, 96 perfect and 69 imperfect *pattidari*, while the remaining five are *bhaiyachara*. Like Akbarpur, the tahsil is said to have been held originally by the Meos, whose chief forts were at Marwar, Shahpur, Musanagar and Teonga. They were conquered in the days of Ala-ud-din Khilji, and subsequently, it is said, the tract

* Appendix, tables IX and X.

was entrusted to a Kayasth, who received the grant of Teonga and whose descendant, Kirat Singh of Akorhi, was appointed *qanungo* and *chaudhri* in the days of Shah Jahan. Other branches of the same family had before that time settled at Kandhi and Khartala, but the original property of Teonga was confiscated for rebellion in 1858. The Meos were not wholly expelled for they still retain several villages along the Jumna, and it is probable that many of the so-called Kachhi-wahas are in reality of Meo descent. The Panwars appear to have occupied the south-east of the pargana in the fifteenth century, settling at Musanagar and Pulandar, while other Rajputs include the Sisodais of Ahraulighat, who claim to have been settled on the banks of the Jumna from the days of the Musalman conquest, the Bais from Tilsabri in the Narwal tahsils and the Gauris who spread over the northern borders from Derapur. Mention should also be made of the Kurmis, who have occupied a large portion of the centre and west from a very early date. The old proprietors had already lost more than half of their ancestral possessions by the settlement of 1840, and thirty years later their estates were reduced to one-fourth of their former area. The process has continued to the present time; for during the currency of the last settlement 65,000 acres changed hands, the purchasers being chiefly Brahmans, Khattris and Banias, most of whom are money-lenders or commercial men of Cawnpore. At present Brahmans own 27·3, Rajputs 10·2, Kurmis and Musalmans 13, Banias 9, and Kayasths 6 per cent. of the tahsil, the remainder being held principally by Khattris, Meos and Ahirs.

BIDHNU, *Tahsil* CAWNPORE.

A village situated in 26° 19' N. and 80° 16' E., on the metalled road to Ghatampur and Hamirpur, at a distance of 13 miles south-west from the district headquarters. A branch road here takes off and leads to Sachendi, crossing the Fatehpur branch canal which flows less than half a mile to the west of the village site. The latter comprises the inhabited portions of both Bidhnu and Khirsa and at the last census was inhabited by 1,934 persons, of whom 1,819 were Hindus, 74 Musalmans and 41 of other religions. Bidhnu possesses a police station,

a post-office, a cattle-p und, an inspection bungalow and an encamping-ground, all by the side of the road. In Khirsa there is a primary school and a bazar, where markets are held twice a week. Bidhnu proper has an area of 891 acres and is assessed at Rs. 1,260, the proprietor being Rai Brij Narayan Gurtu of Cawnpore.

BILHAUR, *Tahsil* BILHAUR.

The capital of the Bilhaur pargana and tahsil is a town situated in $26^{\circ} 50' N.$ and $80^{\circ} 4' E.$, at a distance of 34 miles north-west from Cawnpore. It is an extensive place built on the side of the grand trunk road, parallel to which on the west runs the Cawnpore-Achhnera Railway with a station to the north-west of the main site. Close to the station the main road is crossed by that from Nanamau on the Ganges to Rasulabad, and a little further to the north a branch takes off leading to Makanpur. The place is generally well built and possesses a fair number of masonry houses. There is a considerable export trade in grain and markets are held daily in one or other of the three bazars, these being known as Dilawarganj, Chhoti Bazar and that of Munshi Jai Narayan. In addition to the tahsil buildings there is a police station, a registration office, a dispensary completed in 1900, a post-office, a cattle-pound, an inspection bungalow, an encamping-ground and a bungalow for opium weighments. The educational institutions comprise a middle vernacular school with a small boarding-house attached, and a lower primary school.

The population of Bilhaur numbered 5,382 souls in 1847 and has since undergone marked fluctuations. The total rose to 5,590 in 1853 and to 6,489 in 1865; but subsequent enumerations have witnessed a continuous decrease, the number dropping to 5,954 in 1872 to 5,889 in 1881 and to 5,160 in 1891, while at the last census it was 5,143, including 2,039 Musalmans. Among the latter are several respectable families, but the community is somewhat quarrelsome and litigious. They own a considerable portion of the *mauza* of Bilhaur sharing it with Kurmis and Brahmans: the total area is 2,428 acres of which some 1,625 are cultivated and the seven *mahals* are assessed to a revenue of Rs. 4,060. The provisions of the Village Sanitation Act, 1892, and section 34 of the Police Act have been

applied to the town, while in the inhabited portion, amounting to 307 acres, Act XX of 1856 has been in force since 1861. In 1907 the *chaukidari* area of 300 acres contained 1,131 houses, and in that and the two preceding years the average number assessed was 744, the income from the house-tax being Rs. 1,155, which gave an incidence of Re. 1-8-0 per assessed house and Re. 0-3-8 per head of population. The total income, including the initial balance and Rs. 81 of miscellaneous receipts, averaged Rs. 1,583; and the yearly expenditure for the same period was Rs. 1,294, the chief items being Rs. 536 for the upkeep of the town *chaukidars*, Rs. 240 for the maintenance of a staff of sweepers and Rs. 447 for minor local improvements.

BILHAUR *Tahsil*.

This is the northernmost subdivision of the district, and comprises a large tract of country of a somewhat irregular shape, stretching from the Etawah boundary on the west to the Ganges on the east and north-east, the river forming the dividing line between this district and those of Hardoi and Unao in Oudh. To the north lie the Tirwa and Kanauj tahsils of Farrukhabad, while to the south are Derapur and Sheorajpur. The total area is subject to slight alterations owing to the fluvial action of the Ganges, and for the five years ending in 1906 averaged 213,944 acres or 340·16 square miles.

In its present form the tahsil is of recent origin, owing to the extinction and dismemberment of the old pargana of Rasulabad in 1894, which resulted in the transfer of 94 villages with an area of 120,958 acres to pargana Bilhaur. In the days of Akbar the number of parganas was much greater. In the east were those of Nanaman and Bilhaur, in the centre Deoha, and in the west Malkonsa, while one or two others seem to have extended into the modern subdivision. The abolition of Nanaman took place during the administration of Almas Ali Khan, towards the end of the eighteenth century, and Deoha was amalgamated with Bilhaur after the cession, probably in 1807. The date at which Malkonsa was changed into Rasulabad is not known, but it was due to the foundation of the latter place by a Musalman *amil* named Rasul Khan.

The tahsil **now** forms a subdivision in the charge of a full-powered officer on the district staff, assisted by a tahsildar stationed at Bilhaur. For the purposes of civil jurisdiction the old arrangement of the parganas has not been disturbed, the Rasulabad villages being as before in the circle of the munsif of Akbarpur, while the Bilhaur pargana belongs to that of the Cawnpore munsif. There are four police stations within the limits of the tahsil at Bilhaur, Kakwan, Kainjri and Rasulabad; but the circles of the two last do not lie wholly in this subdivision, as they include a considerable proportion of Derapur and Sheorajpur. It is proposed to remedy this to some extent by the abolition of Kainjri and the amalgamation of its circle with that of Kakwan, at the same time giving the Derapur and Sheorajpur villages to Mangalpur and Sheoli, respectively.

Except along the high bank of the Ganges, the course of which is followed by the grand trunk road and the metre-gauge line from Cawnpore to Farrukhabad, passing through the stations of Pura, Bilhaur and Araul, means of communication are somewhat poor, being confined to unmetalled roads, most of which are of an indifferent description and in several cases liable to be flooded during the rains. Apart from the construction of the railway, there has been no improvement of late years but rather the reverse, since the removal of the tahsil from Rasulabad has led to a general deterioration in the roads of the western portion. The principal lines of traffic are the roads from Nanamau to Bilhaur, Kakwan, Rasulabad and Etawah, and from Araul to Makanpur, Rasulabad and Mangalpur, while others lead from Rasulabad to Kainjri and Sheoli to Rura and Akbarpur, and to Bidhuna in the Etawah district. From Bilhaur a road runs north-west to Makanpur, whence two branches lead to Thathia and Sarai Miran in Farrukhabad. The Ganges is crossed by several ferries, for which reference may be made to the appendix, where also will be found lists of the markets, fairs, schools and post-offices of the tahsil.

Owing to the changes in the area it is impossible to establish a satisfactory comparison between the present and past population. That of pargana Bilhaur rose from 93,481 in 1853 to 98,368 in 1865, but fell in 1872 to 96,439, although in 1881

it had again risen to 100,654. Rasulabad on the other hand showed a constant increase, from 85,925 in 1853 to 95,575 in 1865, to 98,505 in 1872 and to 102,168 in 1881. In 1891 the respective populations were 100,051 and 99,537, in either case showing a decrease; but the number of inhabitants in the re-constituted tahsil of Billhaur was 157,593. At the last census a decline was again observed, the total being 156,261, of whom 72,570 were females, while the average density was 453 to the square mile. Classified by religions there were 143,705 Hindus, 12,516 Musalmans, 33 Aryas, six Christians and one Sikh. Among the various Hindu castes Chamars take the lead with 22,132 representatives, followed by Brahmans with 21,215, Ahirs with 17,858, Rajputs with 9,519, Kurmis with 9,435, Lodhis with 7,580, Gadariyas with 6,850 and Koris with 6,234. Next to these come Telis, Kachhis, Dhanuks, Nais, Kahars, Dhobis and Banias, all of these having over two thousand members apiece. The Rajputs belong to many different clans, but the chief are the Gaurs, whose headquarters are at Nar; the Gallots, who held most of the remainder of Rasulabad; and the Gaharwars, who colonised the old pargana of Billhaur. There are also considerable numbers of Sombansis, Sengars, Chandels, Kachhiwahas and Chauhanas. The Musalmans are principally Sheikhs, 3,573 persons, many of whom describe themselves as Maliks, and next come Pathans, Fagirs, Behnas and Saiyids, these together constituting three-fourths of the whole Muhammadan population.

There are 250 villages in the tahsil, but the only place deserving the name of town is Billhaur itself. Rasulabad is nothing but a large agricultural village, and the same may be said of Asalatganj, Birhan and Kainjri. Makanpur too has a large population, but is important only on account of the annual fair. The essentially rural character of the tahsil is illustrated by the census returns, which show that 72·2 per cent. of the people were directly dependent on agriculture, and an additional 6 per cent. on general labour, the only industry deserving of mention being cotton weaving, which affords employment to some 3,500 persons.

The tahsil presents a considerable diversity of natural features. Along the Ganges is a narrow strip of alluvial land,

demarcated in eight *mahals* which are assessed to short term settlements in the ordinary manner; they contain but little culturable soil, and at the last revision in 1903 the revenue was only Rs. 432. The high bank of the river consists of a hard reddish soil, fortified by numerous reefs of *kankar* and scored in every direction by ravines. Sand is very prevalent, but it is hard and gritty, rapidly consolidating, when unbroken by the plough, into a firm crust that remains undisturbed by the action of the wind or other influences. The high cliff is broken by the channel of the Isan, which takes a winding course of about 13 miles through the north-west of the tahsil and falls into the Ganges near Bilhaur. It has a wide and sandy valley, inundated during the rains and flanked by broken sandy hillocks: those on the left bank rise gradually with a gentle slope; but on the right there is a regular cliff, the surface is markedly undulating and the ravines sometimes extend inland for two or three miles. Between the Ganges and the Isan is a plateau of a slightly undulating character, the soil having a plentiful, though varying, admixture of sand: but while naturally far from rich the utmost is made of its capabilities by the Kurmi cultivators. To the west, beyond the *bhur* of the Isan valley, is a level plain of loam, fertile and highly cultivated, though towards the Ganges canal on the west and the head waters of the Non on the southern borders of the tahsil the uniform character of the tract is chequered by swamps and patches of barren *usar*. The Non has two main feeders, but can hardly be said to assume a definite course in this tahsil. This belt terminates in the valley of the Pandu, a stream that divides the area into two almost equal halves: it flows through comparatively hard soil and has carved for itself a deep channel with almost perpendicular banks, so that it has but a slight influence on the land in its neighbourhood; it is joined near Kursi by an insignificant stream called the Nai. West of the Pandu is another stretch of loam which comprises the rest of the tahsil, though the proportion of sand in its composition tends to increase towards the Derapur border, as the influence of the Rind begins to be felt. This tract is however much inferior to that on the east of the Pandu owing to the great prevalence of *usar*, which forms the dominant feature in the landscape. There is a

number of swamps, of which the largest are those near Naila and Itaili, and the surface drainage is imperfectly carried off by several rain channels leading into the Rind, such as the Chhoha and its affluents known as the Chharaiya and Nariya, which traverse the centre of the tract, and the Siyari in the extreme south-western angle. Here the cultivation consists of scattered patches and though it is often of a high character it necessarily suffers from its incompactness and the consequent multiplication of labour for the tenant.

The total cultivated area of the tahsil at the settlement of 1871 was 107,842 acres or 50·97 per cent. of the whole. This figure was maintained till 1892 when a decline set in, the average for the ten years ending in 1901-02 being 99,720 while the lowest figure was 92,528 in 1896-97. The last few years witnessed some improvement, which has since continued, the average for the five years terminating in 1905-06 being 104,638 acres or 48·91 per cent. of the entire area. The ratio is the lowest in the district, but this is due to the physical conditions of the tahsil. The land classed as barren averages 69,191 acres or 32·34 per cent., and of this only 6,417 acres are under water and 5,881 are permanently occupied by railways, roads, buildings and the like, leaving a quite unusual amount of unculturable land. Much too of the so-called culturable area is of a very similar description. Besides 9,471 acres of groves, which are abundant in most parts, and 4,033 acres of current fallow, there are 26,811 acres of old fallow and arable waste in which some extension of tillage is no doubt possible, though generally the agricultural value is extremely small.

In most places facilities for irrigation are ample. The Cawnpore branch canal traverses the tahsil, taking a course about two miles to the west of the Pandu, and near Kharpatpur gives off a large channel which branches into the Nadiha, Dubiana and Sheorajpur distributaries. Through the western tract flows the Kansua distributary, which serves a large area. Elsewhere irrigation depends mainly on wells, generally earthen cylinders lined with large bricks set in mud, those of the masonry type being very rare. In the sandy soils along the Isan wells are seldom to be found, while between that river and the Ganges they are for the most part unprotected or merely lined with brushwood, their life

depending on the nature of the subsoil and ranging from one season to eight or nine years. On an average 41·71 per cent. of the cultivated area obtains water, though this can be largely exceeded if occasion requires. Out of a total of 43,705 acres 21,114, or 48·31 per cent. are supplied from the canals, 17,621 from wells and 4,971, or 11·37 per cent. from other sources such as the tanks and streams, the Pandu being frequently utilised for this purpose. There are some 1,900 brick wells in existence, the number having almost doubled in the last thirty years.

A remarkable feature in the economic history of Bilhaur is the increase of the double-cropped area, which has risen from 11,849 acres in 1870 to a present average of 26,605 or 25·43 per cent. of the net cultivation, this figure being exceeded in Sheorajpur alone. This has been accompanied by a great expansion of the *kharif* area, which averages 71,517 acres as against 58,107 sown for the *rabi* harvest. In the former the principal crops are *juar* mixed with *arhar*, occupying 26·58 per cent. of the *kharif* area; maize, 22·77 per cent., or more than double the amount grown thirty years ago; cotton, also mixed with *arhar*, 18·76; and rice, mainly of the late variety, 17·91 per cent. In the sandy soils *juar* is replaced by *bajra*, 5·46 per cent., and of the remaining staples the chief is sugarcane, which has declined, but shows some signs of recovery and averages 2,604 acres. Indigo is rapidly disappearing, but was once very important: the average is 1,059 acres or one-fifth of the amount recorded in 1870. Of the *rabi* crops the chief is barley which, alone or mixed with gram, takes up 45·94 per cent. of the area. Then comes wheat, with 23·24 per cent. sown alone and 17·97 in combination with gram or barley: the area under gram unmixed is small, averaging 2·37 per cent. Poppy is an important crop and is on the increase, now covering 3,112 acres or 5·36 per cent. of the spring harvest. The balance consists mainly in garden cultivation, especially potatoes, which now occupy nearly a thousand acres.

At the recent settlement the total area included in holdings was 110,983 acres, and of this 66·4 per cent. was cultivated by occupancy tenants, the area having increased from 67,468 to 73,652 acres during the preceding thirty years

Tenants-at-will hold 18·4, and proprietors 11·5 per cent., the latter showing a decrease while the remaining 3·7 per cent. was rent-free. Rents are paid wholly in cash, and range higher than in any other pargana except Sheorajpur, the rate for occupancy holdings being Rs. 5·66 and for tenants-at-will Rs. 6·82 per acre, while the average rate for the entire tahsil is Rs. 5·91. The figure varies with the different castes, but a more important factor is the quality of the land, Rajputs paying Rs. 5·6 and Kurmis, who are mainly located in the sandy tract, Rs. 5·55 or much the same as Brahmans. Of the total tenant-held area Brahmans cultivate 24·1, Rajputs 16·6, Ahirs 11·7, Kurmis 10·2 and Chamars 3·6 per cent., the rest being mainly tilled by Lodhis, Gadariyas and Telis.

The revenue demand of the tahsil as assessed at successive settlements is shown in the appendix, but it is impossible to ascertain the actual revenue of the existing tahsil prior to the abolition of Rasulabad.* Excluding the alluvial *mahals* already mentioned, the 250 villages of the tahsil are divided into 697 *mahals*, of which 231 are single and 312 joint *zamin-dari*, 85 perfect and 68 imperfect *pattidari*, while one is *bhaiyachara*. In early days the area was divided for the most part between various clans of Rajputs, the Gaurs holding the bulk of the Rasulabad villages, their largest estate being that of Makrandpur. In the north along the Farrukhabad border was a colony of Gahlots who claim to have been settled there from the days of the Kanauj kings, and are probably connected with those of Tirwa. East of the Pandu was the territory of Sombansis, while the centre and south-east of the tahsil was held by Gaharwars. The sandy valley of the Isan was colonised by Kurmis, and the tract between that river and the Ganges was held mainly by Panwars and Musalmans. The old proprietors had lost more than one-third of their ancestral property by 1840, and thirty years later barely two-fifths remained. At the present time only Rajput proprietors who hold any estates of importance are those of Akbarpur Senh, Itaili and Makrandpur, their places having been taken chiefly by Brahmans who have acquired wealth by money-lending, and who have their chief settlements at Dundwa, Jamauli and Saibas. The Kurmis have on the whole held

* Appendix, tables IX and X.

their own and in many cases have enlarged their possessions, actually the biggest *zamindar* in the tahsil being Raj Kunwar of Bihapur.

BINAUR, *Tahsil* CAWNPORE.

A large agricultural village in the west of the tahsil, standing on the left bank of the Rind in $26^{\circ} 23' N.$ and $80^{\circ} 9' E.$, at a distance of two miles south of Sachendi and 14 from Cawnpore. Through the village runs the Indian Midland Railway : but there is no station nearer than Bhimsen, four miles to the east. The village is of great size, but the soil is for the most part poor : out of a total area of 4,584 acres only some 2,435 are cultivated, and irrigation is unobtainable in the western half, which is beyond the reach of the Kansua distributary. The population numbered 4,164 in 1847, but this had dropped to 2,037 in 1872, and though it rose to 3,161 in 1891 the total at the last census was 2,800, including 48 Musalmans and a large body of Chandel Rajputs. The latter are no longer the owners of the village, which is now held by Brahmans and Chamiars : there are three *mahals* with a total revenue demand of Rs. 6,650. There is a lower primary school here, and to the south of the villages is a small fort, the residence of the so-called Rajas : a second and larger fort is to be found on the river bank a mile to the north.

BIRHAN, *Tahsil* BILHAUR.

Birhan is one of the large villages in the western half of the tahsil and, like many others, is noticeable only for its size and the number of its inhabitants. It stands in $26^{\circ} 43' N.$ and $79^{\circ} 54' E.$, about three miles to the north-east of Asalatganj, 15 miles from Bilhaur and 41 miles north-west from Cawnpore. It is a purely agricultural place, with a post-office and a lower primary school. The population numbered 1,412 souls in 1847, but has since increased, the total in 1891 being 2,418, while in 1901 it was 2,468, including 309 Musalmans and large bodies of Brahmans and Gahlot Rajputs. The area of the village is 3,328 acres and the soil is largely

clay or *usar*, only 1,515 acres being under cultivation; irrigation is obtained from the Kansua distributary which traverses the extreme west of the village. The revenue demand is Rs. 3,591, and there are thirteen *mahals*, owned for the most part by Gahlots and Brahmans, while small areas are held by Kachhwahas and Sonars.

BITHUR, *Tahsil* CAWNPORE.

The ancient town of Bithur stands on the banks of the Ganges in $26^{\circ} 37' N.$ and $80^{\circ} 16' E.$, in the extreme northern angle of the tahsil, at a distance of twelve miles above Cawnpore. It is connected with the latter by a metalled road, which is constantly threatened by the river and is supplemented by a branch of the grand trunk road, taking off at Sheoli, and also by a branch line of railway which leaves the Cawnpore-Achlnera line at Mandhana and has its terminus here: the line is generally known as the Subadar's branch, and was constructed for the needs of the great pilgrim traffic. An unmetalled road goes westwards from Bithur across the Non to Chaubepur and Sheoli.

Bithur is not only of the greatest antiquity but is invested with peculiar sanctity in the eyes of the Hindus, for on this spot Brahma celebrated the completion of the creation by a horse sacrifice. The spot is marked by the Brahnavarttaghat on the river bank, and a nail of the horse's shoe embedded in one of the steps of the landing-place is still the object of devout worship. At a later date the spot was the residence of Valmiki, the author of the *Ramayan*, and to him came Sita in her wanderings. The saint gave her shelter, and in his hut were born her twin sons, Lava and Kus, who seized the horse let loose by Rama on the occasion of his *aswamedha*. By thus accepting the challenge they had to fight the army of Ajodhya, and in the battle they were recognised by their father, with the result that general reconciliation was happily effected. Point is given to the story by the fact that bronze arrowheads have been found in the neighbourhood, while the adjoining village of Ramel to the south is said to be a corruption of Ran-mel, the battle of reconciliation. Similar arrowheads are found at Pariar on the opposite side of the river, which is connected with the same

tradition. The residence of Valmiki is still shown on the river bank, and a temple was built in his honour by the Marathas on a mound to the south of the town. There too is the Sita Rasoi and an old temple named Kapaseshwar, probably a corruption of Kakapaksheshwar, a title of Rama.

Bithur afterwards became the capital of a pargana, and from 1811 to 1819 was the headquarters of the district. During that period were built the markets known as Collector-ganj and Russellganj, the latter deriving its name from Mr. Claude Russell, the judge, who erected it in 1812. There are four other bazars, known by the names of Raja Bhagnmal, Bihariganj, Naubatganj and Kataya Bharamal. In 1819, after the departure of the courts, the place was assigned as a residence to Baji Rao, the deposed Peshwa, who maintained here an almost independent state, attended by a retinue of some 15,000 men, for whose support he was assigned part of Bithur and Ramel in revenue-free tenure, the land being called Arazi Lashkar. The grant was confiscated on the rebellion of the Peshwa's adopted son, the infamous Nana Sahib, and was then bestowed for life at a nominal revenue on Narayan Rao, a professed supporter of the British cause. There are still numbers of Maratha Brahmans in Bithur, and the present head of the community is Parsotam Rao Tantia, grandson of Ram Chandra Pant, *naib-suba* to Baji Rao, and son of Narayan Rao. He is generally known as the Subadar Sahib and is the owner of the Arazi Lashkar, which he purchased in 1895.

The reduction of the Maratha force, coupled with the destruction of the Nana's palace and power, had a great effect on the prosperity and population of Bithur. The latter in 1847 numbered 13,647 souls and in 1853 it was 13,580, exclusive of 9,106 then living in Ramel. By 1865 however the total had dropped to 8,322, and it declined further to 7,768 in 1872 to 6,685 in 1881 and to 5,760 in 1891. At the last census however it had risen again to 7,173, including 6,404 Hindus, 754 Musalmans and 15 others. The town is now chiefly important as a place of pilgrimage, and the fairs that are held here have been mentioned in chapter II. All along the river

bank is a series of masonry *ghats*, for the most part in an advanced state of decay. The finest, possessing an imposing arcade in the saracenic style, was built by Raja Tikait Rai, the famous minister of Ghazi-ud-din Haidar of Oudh: it fell into disrepair and was recently restored at a cost of some Rs. 4,500 raised by public subscription. On its upper platform is a temple, and on either side many others are to be seen, the cluster of *ghats*, shrines and dwelling-houses on the bank lending an imposing appearance to that side of the town. The five chief temples are called after their founders, Mahant Gobind Nawas, Bhajanand, Gangadas, Gurudas and Joguldas. The town possesses a dispensary, a police station, a post-office, a cattle-pound, an upper primary school, and an inspection bungalow built about 1895 in a fine situation on the high cliff of the river.

There are two villages of Bithur, distinguished as Kalan and Khurd, with a total area of 1,140 acres, assessed at Rs. 1,616. They are held by Brahmans, Ahirs, Sonars and Kalwars. The chief Brahman family, apart from the Marathas, is that of the Dube Chaudhris, who own a large property in the district. There are many Gangaputras in the town, who take charge of the pilgrims and live mainly on charity; like their fellows elsewhere they have not the best of reputations, but are for the most part very quarrelsome. The village of Ramel was assigned in revenue-free tenure by Almas Ali Khan to his maternal uncle, Bhagnal Jat, and is still held by the latter's heirs. There are two revenue-free plots in the village amounting to about 24 acres, while four are in Bithur Kalan, 78 acres in extent, and twelve of 79 acres are in Bithur Khurd.

The town proper, covering 208 acres in all, was brought under the operations of Act XX of 1856 in 1861, and subsequently the provisions of the Village Sanitation Act, 1892, and section 34 of Act V of 1861 were put in force. In 1907 the number of houses in the town was 1,681, and in that and the two preceding years the average income from the house-tax was Rs. 1,423 assessed on 971 houses, with an incidence of Re. 1-7-3 per house and Re. 0-3-2 per unit of population. The total income, including the initial balance and miscellaneous receipts, some Rs. 500 derived from rents and other

sources, was Rs. 2,252, while the expenditure for the same period averaged Rs. 2,010 per annum, the chief items being Rs. 762 for the town police force, Rs. 396 for the maintenance of a conservancy staff and Rs. 824 for minor local improvements.

CAWNPORE City.

The city of Cawnpore stands on the right or west bank of the Ganges, approximately in $26^{\circ} 28'$ N. and $80^{\circ} 21'$ E., at a distance of 120 miles from Allahabad and 42 miles from Lucknow. It has unequalled means of communication with other parts of India, being on the main line of the East Indian system, which is here connected with the Indian Midland Railway from Jhansi, the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway from Lucknow and the Cawnpore-Achnera section of the Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway. The last is of the metre-gauge, and this is linked up by means of a line belonging to the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway with the Bengal and North-Western system. Parallel to the East Indian Railway runs the grand trunk road, skirting the cantonment and city on the south-west and west, and a branch from this passes through the midst of the inhabited quarter. Metalled roads lead from Cawnpore to Bhognipur and Kalpi on the west, to Ghatampur and Hamirpur on the south-west, to Bithur on the north and to Lucknow, the last crossing the Ganges by means of the railway bridge.

The earliest enumeration of the inhabitants was made in 1847, when the population of the city, calculated on a rough estimate based on the number of houses, was 58,821, and that of the cantonments 49,975, exclusive of the actual garrison and the European residents. In 1853 the total was 118,000, but by 1865 it had dropped to 113,601. Each subsequent census however has witnessed an increase and the development of the place has been extraordinarily rapid, although the extension of the municipal area from time to time has affected the total, rendering exact comparison impossible. From 122,770 in 1872 the number of inhabitants rose to 151,444 in 1881 and to 188,712 in 1891, while at the last census the population of the city, civil lines and cantonments was 197,170, of

whom 85,890 were females. That of the municipal area alone was 172,674 and of cantonments 24,496. Classified by religions the municipality contained 128,557 Hindus, 41,309 Musalmans, 1,833 Christians, 545 Jains, and 430 Aryas Sikhs and Parsis. In cantonments there were 15,556 Hindus, 6,640 Musalmans, and 2,300 of other religions, mainly Christians. The principal Hindu castes in the city are Banias, 19,534; Brahmans, 14,263; Chamars, 13,474; Koris, 11,231; Lodhs, 8,853; Telis, 7,018; and Ahirs, 6,050. Besides these, Kahars, Kayasths, Kachhis, Khatiks, Rajputs, Kalwars, Sonars, Gadariyas, Bhangis, Nais and Khattris occur in numbers exceeding two thousand apiece. Of the Musalmans 24,119 were Sheikhs, and 7,683 Pathans, the rest being principally Julahas, 3,236; Saiyids, 2,661; Mughals, Bhangis, Behnas and Kunjras.

Occupations.

Of the city population 17·35 per cent. were agriculturists, 19·65 were engaged in personal or domestic service, 13·43 in general labour, 5·78 in transport and storage, 2·21 in public service of various descriptions and 2·17 per cent. were independent of any particular occupation. For the remainder, 2·07 per cent. represents the commercial, 2·69 the professional and 34·65 per cent. the industrial population. The last is a remarkably high figure, and is probably not exceeded in any other city of the provinces except Benares. Out of 59,831 persons employed in the preparation and supply of material substances, 33·3 per cent. came under the head of food and drink, 30·7 under textile fabrics, 10·9 under metals and 7·9 per cent. under leather, these together making up more than four-fifths of the whole.

History.

Cawnpore, popularly supposed to be a corruption of Kanhaiyapur or Kanhpur, was an unimportant village up to the time of its first connection with the British. It is mentioned casually during the sixteenth century, but contains no buildings or remains of any antiquity, and never rose to any prominence till it was selected in 1778 as a cantonment for the Oudh local forces maintained under the treaty of 1773. The reason for the removal of the military station from near Bilgram in Hardoi was that Cawnpore had already been chosen for the site of a trading factory by the Company: its favourable situation led to the rapid development of commerce, and

it was felt that a military force was necessary for the protection of the European traders and business houses. A local tradition states that Kanhpur Kohna or old Cawnpore owes its origin to Hindu Singh, Raja of Sachendi, who came hither to bathe about 1750, and considered the place suitable for the site of a town; but although he very possibly built the gateway and the ramparts, of which traces still exist, it is almost certain that a village of that name was already standing on the spot now occupied by old Cawnpore. At all events the new cantonment comprised all the land between this village and Jajmau: and to this fact may be assigned the somewhat peculiar position of Cawnpore, with the city at some distance from the river. This city grew up by a gradual process of expansion along the southern boundary of the cantonment, and its modern origin is manifest throughout. The result of the constant accretions is to be seen in the irregular form of the city, which is a mere congeries of houses, arranged on no definite plan and separated from one another by narrow irregular lanes. There were no broad streets in the city till after the Mutiny, when their construction was undertaken by Government at great expense, as in the case of Halsey road and one or two others of later date. The lack of good means of communication in the city is still very marked, and a scheme is at present on foot for the construction of several good roads through the more congested portions.

Extant maps and the description of Sir Robert Montgomery enable us to form a fairly accurate idea of the station and city as they were in the days before the Mutiny. At the time of the survey in 1840 ^{Cawnpore} the cantonment stretched along the river front from the eastern boundary of Cawnpore Kohna to Jajmau. Its western limits ran from north to south, from the present waterworks pumping station to Sisamau, whence the boundary followed the branch of the grand trunk road, leading eastwards along the northern outskirts of the city to Patkapur, where it curved to the south-west as far as Collector-ganj, separating the Sadr Bazar from the rest of the town. It then skirted the south-western limits of the latter as far as Dalelpurwa, there bending south to neighbourhood of the East Indian Railway station and afterwards running parallel to the grand trunk road till it met the eastern boundary from Jajmau. ^{in 1840.}

The city was thus enclosed by cantonments on three sides; and consequently expansion was possible in but one direction, a fact which is doubtless responsible for the congestion of to-day. Beyond the cantonment on the west was the civil station in Nawabganj, comprising the district courts and offices, the treasury, the tahsil buildings for Jajmau and Bithur, the jail and the large garden belonging thereto, the mission station near Gutaiya and the bungalows of the civil officials. Within cantonments on the west were the large fortified enclosure of the magazine, the European general hospital, the custom house at Permit-ghat, and to the south of the last the British infantry lines and parade-ground. Between these and the city were the native infantry lines, extending from the Subadar's tank to Christ Church. In the eastern portion were the artillery lines, near the river, the British cavalry lines and hospital, the latter occupying the site of the Memorial Church; and west of these, between the Sadr Bazar and the grand trunk road, were the native cavalry lines, with the camel and bullock sheds. Beyond the grand trunk road was a long and narrow strip used as a racecourse, opposite the Savada Kothi and the site of the old cavalry lines in the southern extremity.

Recon-
struction.

During the Mutiny practically every building in the civil station and cantonment was either destroyed or seriously damaged. Christ Church, the theatre and several bungalows escaped with the loss of their roofs, which had been burned; but the only structure left untouched was the Masonic Lodge adjoining the theatre, in which the furniture and records were found intact on its re-opening in 1859. With the rebuilding of the station a complete reconstruction took place. The western portion of cantonments was formed into the new civil station, and all the barracks and lines were erected in the portion east of the canal. Subsequently the boundary was altered so as to separate the Sadr Bazar from cantonments, and a large portion of the latter to the south of the city and west of the canal was given up to the civil authorities.

Canton-
ment.

At the present time the cantonment comprises a large stretch of ground between the river on the north and the grand trunk road on the south, the eastern boundary marching with Jajmau as before, while on the west it follows the line of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway as far as the Mall

level crossing, thence keeping along the Mall to the canal bridge, and afterwards following the canal to the extremity of the Queen's Park: it then crosses the canal, the line running along the north of the Park and the east and north of the Memorial Gardens, and thence to the river, so as to take in the Government Harness Factory, a fortified position of considerable strength. The premises extend eastwards to the canal, and between the latter and the railway, from the bridge over the Ganges to the Mall crossing, there are several bungalows and other buildings, including the residence of the factory superintendent, the Memorial school, the Methodist chapel and the Volunteer club, which stands in the angle between the Hastings and Canning roads. The latter runs due east to join the main Clyde road, which keeps parallel to the river from the factory to Jajmau. Between this road and the river are numerous bungalows, as well as the small bazars at Gola-ghat and Sati Chaura; at the latter is a plain stone cross erected in 1890 to mark the site of the riverside massacre. Near Sati Chaura is the bungalow recently acquired as a circuit-house for the Lieutenant-Governor. On the south side of the Clyde road are the office of the cantonment magistrate, a number of bungalows and, further to the east, the artillery lines and the villages of Bhajjapurwa, Badlipurwa, Maikapurwa and Khapraila. Near the artillery lines the road is joined by Queen's road, which runs south to the junction with the Mall and continues past the station hospital to the Indian infantry lines, and thence to the south-east corner of the cantonment to join the grand trunk road. East of Queen's road the country is open and broken by ravines: it contains the villages already mentioned, as well as the infantry and artillery bazars and the new cemetery. The block between the railway on the west, Clyde road on the north, Queen's road on the east and the Mall on the south is traversed by Hastings road, running east and west, and by the Havelock and Albert cross roads. It contains the military farm to the west; the Military Works offices, the cantonment police station, the Roman Catholic Church, and other buildings in the centre such as the Club, St. John's Church and many bungalows in the eastern portion. South of the Mall runs the Cambridge road, joining Queen's road

at the station hospital, and in the intervening space are the brigade parade-ground and the Memorial Church of All Souls. The latter stands just outside Wheeler's entrenchment, which is marked out by pillars and a low hedge, while across the road to the west is the enclosure round the well which served as a burying-place for the defenders and is now surmounted by a massive cross. Along the south side of the Cambridge road are the British infantry barracks, begun before the Mutiny, and to the south-east of these are the Indian cavalry lines, on the far side of an immense open space known as the general parade-ground on which is the race-course. Between the cavalry lines and the grand trunk road are the rifle ranges, and along the road are the rest-camp, the site of the Savada Kothi and the hamlet of Kakauri, while beyond the road is a long stretch of open and uncultivated ground used as in former days as a racecourse. From the rest-camp the Napier road leads northwards along the western edge of the general parade-ground to the Mall, passing the transport lines, beyond which is the Harding road, taking off from the Mall near the Club and crossing Napier road at the western extremity of the barracks. It leads to the East Indian Railway station, which is situated outside the limits of both the cantonment and the municipality. The space between the Harding road and the municipal boundary, marked roughly by the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, is the most densely populated part of the cantonment, containing the *muhallas* of Harrisganj, Mirpur, Faithfulganj and Khapra. In the north-east is a large excavation known as the Dhobis' tank, from which a drainage cut, called Tovey's *nala*, runs through the cantonment to the Ganges at Sati Chaura. Near this tank on the west is the old cemetery, in which is the tomb of the famous Sir William Peel, R. N., who died from small-pox on his return from the final capture of Lucknow. Between this cemetery and the Harding road is the cantonment general hospital.

Civil
station

The civil station extends westwards from the cantonment boundary between the city and the river, the southern boundary being the road known in different parts of its length as the Gillis Bazar, Colonelganj and Benajhabar roads. The main thoroughfare is the Mall, which finally becomes the Bithur road and gives off a network of branches to all parts of

the station. In the extreme east the road is lined on either side with shops till it reaches Queen's Park, a large public garden which was laid out by Mr. Moule in 1890 : it contains a racquet court built by Pundit Gur Prasad Shukul for the use of the European residents, and at the western end is a fine bronze statute of her late Majesty Queen Victoria, erected by public subscription. Next come the Memorial Gardens, within which is the famous well, enclosed by a carved stone screen and surmounted by an angel from the chisel of Baron Marochetti. Hard by is a cross resting on a pedestal of black marble to mark the site of the Bibighar, and within the grounds is a small cemetery in which were buried those who fell in the defence of Havelock's entrenchment. Beyond the gardens, on the right of the road, are the Bank of Bengal, the new currency office and the Alliance Bank of Simla, while on the left or south are the theatre, Christ Church and the College and mission station belonging to the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. Theatre was built partly from cantonment funds and partly by subscription : it was restored by the municipality, which took it over from the military authorities in 1868 and continued to be used as a theatre till 1905, when it was purchased for a central telegraph office. Beyond Christ Church the road crosses that from Sirsayaghat, and then passes the tahsili school, the Prince of Wales and Dufferin hospitals and the old parade, part of which has recently been enclosed and is now used for the Ramlila and other gatherings. Further on are the high school, the Government distillery and the Subadar's tank, now being filled up, while on the north side are the Allahabad Bank, the Methodist Church, the Muir Mills, the Brush Factory, the Woollen Mills and the Victoria Mills. West of the Subadar's tank come the Empire Engineering Company's works and the large block of workmen's dwellings known as McRobertganj. Some way further on is a similar block belonging to Messrs. Cooper, Allen & Co., and thence the road leads to the Agricultural Station and College, finally passing through the large village of Nawabganj, with its police station and dispensary, before reaching the municipal limits. The municipal area south of the road, from the Subadar's tank to Nawabganj, includes the villages of Gutaiya, Ghusreman and Sisamau, but is more or less open as far as

the grand trunk road which forms the boundary. It is traversed by the Benajhabar road from the city, passing the Colonelganj police station, the municipal cart dépôt, the slaughter-houses, the *idgah* and the waterworks filtering station. All the land around Ghusremau and Sisamau is taken up by brick-fields, some of which have been in existence for many years and played an important part in the fighting that occurred between the British and the rebels from Gwalior.

The river
front.

Between the Mall and the river lies the civil station proper, extending westwards from the Memorial Gardens. In the east are the municipal offices, the collector's house, the jail and police lines, on the side of the old native infantry hospital, the district courts and offices, where the old Flag-staff barracks once stood, and the old cemetery. The last dates from the earliest days of Cawnpore as a military station and contains a great number of interesting monuments, notably those of Colonel Stainforth, who died in 1781, and of Sir John Horseford, K.C.B., a distinguished officer who died in 1817, ten days after his return from the siege of Hathras. A short distance west of the cemetery is the Green Park, used as a recreation ground, the post and telegraph offices, the hall of the Chamber of Commerce, and the offices of Messrs. Begg, Sutherland and Co. Beyond the Green Park is the Permit Bazar, and then come the great boot factory of Messrs. Cooper, Allen & Co., the Elgin Mills, on the site of the old European general hospital, the North-West Tannery, near the site of the old magazine, the waterworks intake station and Cawnpore Kolna, a long straggling bazar of little interest. Other native quarters in the same direction are the Khalasi lines, south of the North-West Tannery, and Gwaltoli, near the Victoria Mills. Of the various *ghats* along the river-front the most important is Sirsaya-ghat, between the jail and the collector's house. The old buildings were demolished during the Mutiny by the authorities, and the *ghat* was rebuilt Mr. Halsey by means of private subscriptions and a grant of Rs. 5,000 from municipal funds. The other *ghats* comprise Karbala, Mahsonia, Goa-ghat, Raja-ghat, Tidbaria, Bania, Tiwari, Bari and Sukha-ghat in old Cawnpore; Sukha and Bhairon *ghat* near the pumping station; the burning-ghat, Magazine-*ghat*, Hospital-ghat, Permit-ghat, Gora-ghat and a second Hospital-*ghat* near the jail.

The city proper comprises an agglomeration of crowded The city. brickbuilt *muhallas*, separated by narrow lanes and a few wider thoroughfares. The south-eastern block, comprising the Sadr Bazar, lies between the canal, the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railways and the Mall, along which are St. Catherine's Hospital and the residence of the deaconesses of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, the Flour Mills, the King's Market, the premises of the Cawnpore Supply Association and other shops. In this quarter lie the *muhallas* called Harbans, Sitaram, Gadariya, Moti, Kachiana, Daulatganj, Lokman, Mathuri and Filkhana. A large space is taken up by the station and yards of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway and by quarters for the railway staff.

The next block lies between the canal on the south, the Collector-ganj. Mall on the east and the narrow street called the Sirki Bazar road on the west. It is an important business centre, containing the *muhallas* of Nayaganj and Dalmandi in the south, those of Purana Nachghar, Sirki, Roti-godown, Shutarkhana and Filkhana Bazar in the centre, and of Chatai, Patkapur and Kursawan in the north. Nayaganj was in former days the great grain market of the city, but owing to the insufficient accommodation for carts, Mr. Halsey in 1869 acquired a large area at the southern end of the Sirki bazar road, close to the canal, and there built the large open market called Collector-ganj, which is now the centre of the grain traffic. It is within easy reach of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway station, and is approached on the north by the broad Halsey road cut through the heart of the city and on the west by the Couperganj road, connecting with the grand trunk road and that from Kalpi. On the east side of the square is the Filkhana police station, on the south a dispensary and to the south-east are the various railway goods-sheds, within easy reach of this and of the adjoining cotton mart of Couperganj.

The Halsey road from Collectorganj leads to the Gillis Chauk. Bazar, debouching between the high school and the old parade. It is crossed midway by a road known in its northern portion as the Chauk and in the south, between the Halsey and Couperganj roads, as the LaTouche road, this part having been recently laid out. The Chauk is a narrow lane lined with shops and business houses. It terminates on the north

in the Sirsayaghat road, and owing to its importance as a main thoroughfare it was proposed to widen it throughout. The work was commenced in 1888 by Mr. H. D. Moule, after whom the broad street called Mouleganj, which comprises the southern extremity of the Chauk, was named; but the expense incurred proved too great for the continuance of the project, and the greater part of the Chauk remains in its former state. To the east of this alley, in the space between the Chauk, Halsey, Sirki Bazar and Gillis Bazar roads are the *muhallas* of Chandkhana, Naughara, Nakkhas, Ramganj, Mundha Toli, Ghasmandi, Generalganj and Shatranji, to the south; Hatia, Lathi, Beldari, Chhapar, Chakla, Thatlrai, Sabzimandi and Mahesri in the centre; and to the north Rakabganj, Dhobi, Narial Bazar, Bengali and Khas Bazar. In the last, opposite the Dufferin hospital, is a large space occupied by the fine temples of Prayag Narayan and Kunji Lal, the chief places of Hindu worship in the city. The triangular block west of the Chauk, between the Halsey and Gillis Bazar roads, contains the Topkhana Bazar, Roti Bazar, Misri Bazar, Butcherkhana Khurd, Chaube Gola, Farraskhana and Naya Chauk *muhallas*, the last including the markets of Gillis Bazar and Makhanya Bazar.

**Western
city.**

West of the Halsey road the *muhallas* are more open and scattered, though the block between that thoroughfare on the east, the Couperganj road on the south and the first portion of the Hamirpur road from the high school to the Kalpi road contains a large population and is a somewhat important industrial quarter. It comprises the *muhallas* of Hiranpur, opposite which on the west is an old cemetery containing numerous tombs of soldiers and Europeans of the poorer classes; Dalepurwa, where are the municipal engine sheds; Jograjpur, Kasamganj and Bansmandi to the west, and Coolie Bazar, Bara Butcherkhana and Ranjitpur to the east of the LaTouche road. This portion contains a large number of cotton ginning factories, presses and godowns, as well as several tanneries, foundries and mills of minor importance. The eastern portion adjoins Collectorganj, and is as thickly populated as any part of the city. South of the Couperganj road is the principal cotton market, and many more presses,

gins and warehouses. The inhabited quarters are Lachhmanpurwa and Chingighar, while all the rest is taken up by the Cawnpore Cotton Mills, the Cawnpore Sugar Works, and the railwaysidings, goods-sheds, offices and workshops. Couperganj dates from 1866, when the ground was levelled and the old brickkilns that abounded in the neighbourhood were removed. It is now proposed to erect a central cotton market on a site to be obtained by filling up the large tank between the road and the sugar works. Adjoining Couperganj is the Town Hall, a building completed in 1879 at a cost of Rs. 1,16,000.

To the south of the Colonelganj road, which is the continuation towards Benajhabar of that known in the city portion as the Gillis Bazar road, and west of the Hamirpur road are several scattered *muhallas*, called Talaq, Colonelganj, Khapra and Baconganj, the last named after a judge and magistrate of Cawnpore in 1828. These form an ill-defined block extending westwards to Sisamau and southwards to the brickfields and the Kalpi road from Couperganj. Between the latter and the grand trunk road is a stretch of open waste with more brickfields and a few inhabited sites such as Bhuniyanapurwa. The municipality extends beyond the grand trunk road, between the canal and the Kalpi road, taking in the village of Juhi Khurd and a considerable area of cultivated land. Within this space is the station of Anwarganj, the terminus of the Cawnpore-Achnera Railway, as well as the Hamirpur Road station of the Indian Midland Railway, which here joins the main line of the East Indian system.

It is needless to refer again to the trade and manufactures of Cawnpore, of which ample mention has been made in chapter II. The city is wholly given up to commerce, and this predominant characteristic is illustrated by the marked absence of buildings with any pretensions to architectural or æsthetic merit: and if the most imposing structures are the great mills and factories, this is but emblematical of the prevailing spirit of the place.

Some account has already been given in chapter IV of the Cawnpore municipality, but there are one or two points still to be mentioned in connection with municipal undertakings.

In that account reference was made to the insanitary condition of the city in early days, and this deplorable state of affairs remained unchanged till the time of Mr. Hasley, who was collector from 1865 to 1872. That officer reconstructed some of the old drains in the city, but paid special attention to the improvement of the three main sewers, which were then little more than earthen ditches of the most unsavoury type. These sewers comprised the big *nala* from Purane Nachghar through the civil station to the Ganges; a feeder to the former which passed through the Sirki muhalla and Kahu-ki-kothi; and a *nala* from Garhiya Rasdhan to the Ganges by the way of coolie bazar and Sisamau. All these were remodelled and lined with brick throughout, the cost being defrayed by a loan of Rs. 2,13,000 from Government. A regular conservancy department was organised in 1866, and nightsoil and sweepings were systematically carted away. Another reform was the construction of slaughter-house at Coolie Bazar and Couperganj, the old practice on the part of the butchers of killing animals in their own houses being prohibited. Public latrines were erected in place of those hitherto kept by sweepers for their own profit, and subsequently trenching, which had been carried on indiscriminately on lands adjoining the city, was restricted to the municipal ground at Narayanpur. In 1891 a sewerage scheme was drawn up providing for a long intercepting sewer from the Sisamau *nala* through cantonments to the river at Jajmau, with the object of saving the river front from pollution and laying the foundation of a more complete drainage system. The project was set aside for the time owing to the lack of funds; but in the meanwhile a notable improvement in the sanitation of the city was effected by the construction of a tramway, some five and a half miles in length, for carrying off nightsoil and sweepings to the trenching ground. This undertaking was carried out in 1902-03 at a cost of some Rs. 46,000, and in this manner a great saving was achieved on the old and expensive method of employing bullocks and carts. The tramway runs from the municipal engine sheds at Dalelpurwa to the trenching ground at Narayanpur, with branches along the Halsey and Couperganj roads. The sewerage project was again taken up in 1901 with certain

modifications. As finally sanctioned and carried out, it embraces a main high level intercepting sewer from the Sisamau *nala* near Ghusremau, through the western parts of the city, the civil station and the cantonments, to the discharge just above Jajmau. Branch sewers connect this with the city, one leading to the Sadr Bazar and Collectorganj, while another goes to Couperganj and Lachhmanpurwa. On the north a low-level sewer takes the drainage from Khalasi lines and Gwaltoli to Permit Bazar, where is a pumping station for raising the sewage by a connecting sewer with the main line. A series of pail-dépôts has been opened in connection with the main sewer and its branches, and at these the sewage is discharged under strong water pressure from the sealed vessels in which it is collected. The drainage works have up to the present cost some twelve lakhs, of which the greater part was obtained by loan from the Bank of Bengal. The conservancy tramway is now used only for sweepings and rubbish, which are carried as before to Narayanpur along the Kalpi road, where incinerators have been erected for destroying the refuse, or else utilised for filling up tanks and hollows.

As early as 1866 and 1867 analyses of the water-supply ^{Water-supply.} as obtained from various wells in the city and cantonment gave hardly satisfactory results, and showed that the well-water was in almost every respect inferior to that of the Ganges. Nothing further was done, however, till in 1891 a scheme was mooted for the construction of waterworks and the supply of filtered water by Mr. A. J. Hughes. It was then decided to draw the supply from the river by means of an intake station at Bhaironghat, just below Old Cawnpore, with a 22-inch rising main leading for a distance of some 7,000 feet to Benajhabar, where a large area was acquired for the settling tanks, filter beds and distributing station. The work was commenced in August 1892, and the waterworks were formally opened by Sir Charles Crosthwaite on the 17th March 1894. There are at Benajhabar three settling tanks and five filter beds, and from this point water is supplied to all parts of the town and cantonment. The total capital outlay was about Rs. 14,50,000, and this was met by a loan from Government, repaid in half yearly instalments. The cost of maintenance is some Rs. 68,000 annually, and is partly defrayed by meter-rents and the sale of water, the latter yielding some

Rs. 30,000 per annum. Standposts are situated in all parts for public use, and the daily supply amounts to about twenty gallons per head of population, this somewhat high figure being due to the immense consumption by the larger mills and factories.

Other-
improve-
ments.

Many other works of improvement have been carried out in the city during recent years. The most important are the erection of model dwellings for workmen, notably those put up for the employé's of Messrs. Cooper, Allen & Co. and of the Woollen Mills at McRobertganj. It still remains to deal with the terrible congestion in the more densely populated portions of the city. This was foreseen in early days, and it was to this that the opening out of the broad thoroughfare known as Halsey road owed its origin. A similar undertaking in the case of the Chaulk road was abandoned on the ground of expense, but the recent continuation of this line in the shape of the LaTouche road to the south is of the greatest value. It is now proposed to run two or more broad thoroughfares through the heart of the city, though the cost of the project must necessarily render progress in this direction very slow.

Educa-
tion.

Reference has been made in chapter IV to the history of the principal educational institutions of the city, and a list of all the schools at present in existence will be found in the appendix. Elsewhere too an account has been given of the Agricultural Station at Gutaiya, though this is outside municipal limits.

CAWNPORE *Tahsil*.

The headquarters tahsil, formerly known as Jajmau, comprises a compact block of country between the river Rind, which separates it on the west and south-west, respectively, from Akbarpur and Ghatampur, and the Ganges, beyond which lies the district of Unao: to the south-east is Narwal, and to the north-west Sheorajpur. The aggregate area is 171,713 acres or 28·63 square miles, this amount including the city and cantonments which together cover about 19·5 square miles. The total is apt to vary from time to time owing to the action of the Ganges, and the figure given is the average of the returns for the five years ending in 1906.

The old pargana of Jajmau was much smaller than the present tahsil, which also includes the parganas of Majhawan and Mohsinpur, generally called Maswanpur: apparently too for a time Sachendi formed a separate pargana, and these four were united in 1807. In addition there was the pargana of Bithur, embracing all the northern villages: and this was abolished in 1861, the area being divided between Jajmau and Sheorajpur. Extensive changes too had occurred in 1840, when 81 villages of Jajmau were transferred to Narwal apart from exchanges between Jajmau and Bithur. The boundaries as finally determined in 1861 have since remained unaltered.

The tahsil now forms a subdivision of the district in the charge of a deputy collector, with a tahsildar residing at Cawnpore, where also is the court of the munsif. For the purposes of public jurisdiction there are the five city stations, and that in cantonments, of which Kotwali, Nawabganj and Colonelgunj possess a small rural area, while the remainder is divided between the *thanas* of Bidhnu, Sachendi and Bithur, a few villages in the south-east being included in the Maharajpur circle.

The population of the tahsil in 1853 was 226,508, though this was exclusive of the Bithur villages subsequently transferred. In 1865 it was 284,800, but in 1872 it had fallen to 267,286. Since that time however the increase had been rapid, the total rising to 289,333 in 1881 and to 324,628 at the next census. In 1901 it was 338,507, of whom 151,470 were females, the average density being 1,196 to the square mile. This excessive rate is due to the presence of the city, the rural area having a population of only 141,333 persons, with a density of 568: and even this would be much smaller but for the large suburban population. There are altogether 226 villages, among the largest of which are such places as Rawatpur, Maswanpur, Juhi, Naubasta and Kakadeo, which may almost be described as suburbs of Cawnpore, sheltering large semi-urban elements directly or indirectly connected with the city. Apart from these, there is the town of Bithur in the extreme north, and the considerable agricultural villages of Kathara, Binaur, Ramaipur, Sachendi, Majhawan and Panki Gangaganj, all of which contain over two thousand inhabitants. These

and several others possess markets of some local importance, of which a list will be found in the appendix, where also are shown the fairs, post-offices and schools of the tahsil.

Of the total population 276,479 were Hindus, 56,345 Musalmans, 4,346 Christians, 651 Aryas, 571 Jains, 61 Sikhs, 53 Parsis and one Jew. Among the Hindus Brahmans take the lead with 35,835 representatives, and next come Chamars with 29,530, Ahirs with 22,895, Banias with 20,927, Rajputs with 19,892, Koris with 17,676, Lodhs with 17,610 and Kachhis with 10,700. Telis, Gadariyas, Nais, Kayasths and Kahars are found in numbers exceeding five thousand, and many other castes occur in considerable strength, the composition of the population being far more varied than in the east of the district. The Rajputs are drawn from many different clans, the chief being Chandels, 3,131, Bais, 2,242 and Chauhans, 2,030, while Bhadaurias, Gautams, Kachhwahas, Jadons, Parihars, Gaurs, Dikhits and Rathors are found in large numbers. Among the Musalmans there were 32,527 Sheikhs and 10,007 Pathans while Julahas, Saiyids, Behnas and Mughals constitute the bulk of the remainder. The occupations of the people also are more diversified than usual, owing to the industries of the city. The agricultural population amounts to little more than 35 per cent. of the whole, while general labour accounts for 13, personal and domestic service for 15 and various industrial occupations for about 20 per cent.

As is only to be expected, means of communication are ample. Apart from those at Cawnpore there is a railway station on the East Indian main line at Panki, while those of Bhaupur and Chakeri lies close to the tahsil boundaries on the west and east; at Bhimsen on the Great Indian Peninsula, and at Kalyanpur and Bithur on the metre-gauge system, the latter being the terminus of a small branch from Mandhana. The metalled roads comprise the grand trunk road with its branch to Bithur and the provincial roads to Kalpi and Hamirpur, both of which cross the Pandu and Rind by bridges. Of the numerous unmetalled roads the chief highway is that from Sheoli to Sachendi, Ramaipur and Kora, while another of some importance is that from Kalyanpur to Sheoli: they are usually of an indifferent description, though serviceable enough in dry weather.

The paths along the canals are also utilised to some extent for light traffic.

Physically as well as geographically the tahsil occupies a position midway between Sheorajpur and Narwal. The alluvial strip along the Ganges is here considerably more extensive and valuable than in the other parganas, since above the *katris* in the actual bed of the river, which constitute 16 *mahals*, there is a fertile stretch of *kachhar*, lying to the north of the city, and in parts sufficiently elevated and stable to possess groves and permanent sites : it comprises 25 *mahals*, which are treated under the ordinary alluvial rules and were last assessed in 1904, the revenue for the whole 41 *mahals* being Rs. 12,712. Above this low ground rises the Ganges cliff, broken in the extreme north by the valley of the Non, which has a very short course in this tahsil, passing into the Ganges almost immediately after leaving Sheorajpur and flowing between high and sandy banks. The cliff above the *kachhar* is lower than usual, the ravines and undulations are less strongly marked and the good soil of the uplands extends nearer to the edge, these advantages being enhanced by the presence of many large and populous village sites. South of the city the ordinary characteristics reappear, and the soil is hard, gritty and impoverished by the rapid drainage, while means of irrigation are practically absent. As the level slopes inland from the crest of the high ground, the soil changes into a rich loam, which in the vicinity of the city is very closely cultivated and produces excellent crops. This belt in turn merges into the valley of the Pandu, of which the soil, instead of the fairly stiff grey loam that is found along the river in the northern reaches, becomes sandier and softer, and of the same reddish hue that characterises the valley of the Rind. The Pandu traverses the centre of the tahsil and increases perceptibly in volume during its course, with the result that there appears an ever-widening belt of undulating and sandy land along its banks. The western half of the tahsil possesses the same red soil almost throughout, but the tract has not the same facilities for irrigation as the corresponding circle in Sheorajpur, as the Kansua distributary comes to an end after a course of eight miles and the south-western portion has no canal supply. A great improvement has, however, been

effected by the construction of the Fatehpur branch, which starts near Naubasta and thence bends westwards to cross the Pandu by a fine aqueduct, irrigating the western bank of that river. The red soil belt ends in the valley of the Rind, and near the stream is a strip of broken country with steeper and more marked undulations than along the Pandu, while towards the south there appear the first indications of the *behar*, as it is called, uneven and practically barren jungle land, scored in every direction by ravines which penetrate further and further inland as the Narwal border is approached. There is very little *usar* in the valley of the Rind; but towards the Pandu it is frequently to be seen, although in this respect the tahsil is not to be compared with Sheorajpur. The drainage of the country between the Rind and the canal is carried off by a streamlet known as the Kharao, which rises near Sapabi and thence flows southwards past Kathara to join the river two miles to the east of Simblua.

The cultivated area of the tahsil was 94,973 acres in 1840, but thirty years later it had fallen to 91,738. A further decrease took place in subsequent years and no improvement could be observed till 1898, when the acreage began to approach the old level once more. On the other hand it should be noted that although some of the inferior land has been abandoned, especially on the Ganges cliff, the diminution is due mainly to extensive appropriations of arable land for railways, canals, factories, rifle-ranges and the military grass farm. The average for the five years ending in 1906-07 was 89,405 acres or 52·07 per cent. of the whole, and the comparatively low proportion is due to the peculiar situation of the tahsil. No less than 50,605 acres or 29·47 per cent. are described as barren, but this includes 4,716 acres under water and 12,537 acres occupied by buildings, railways, roads and the like, the area of actually unculturable waste being well below the general average of the district. The so-called culturable area is 31,703 acres in extent, including 8,959 acres of groves, which are extraordinarily numerous and take up 5·22 per cent. of the entire tahsil, and 3,684 acres of current fallow; the remainder is principally old fallow, but much of it is so poor that it would never repay tillage.

Mention has been made of the canals in the parts west of the Pandu, where the Fatehpur branch gives off a number of minors, chiefly on its left bank. East of that river the Ganges canal supplies the northern portion by means of the right Ranjitpur and the Kalyanpur distributaries, while in the south is the Haluakhada. Possibly some improvement might be effected by extending the latter so as to reach a part of the country on the high bank of the Ganges; and the need of more efficient drainage channels is very evident in the north, where saturation has done much damage in Maswanpur and other villages. On an average the area irrigated is 33,882 acres or 37·9 per cent. of the net cultivation, and of this 43·05 per cent. is supplied from canals, 53·14 from wells and 3·8 per cent. from other sources. Wells are numerous, about 2,170 being in use at the present time, excluding those of the unprotected type, which are very common; and the increase during the past thirty years has been very satisfactory. Masonry wells are rarely used for irrigation, the usual variety being that known as half-masonry, with a cylinder of bricks set in mud without mortar. Little use is made of the tanks and streams in this tahsil, though there are several fair-sized *jhils* in the western tract.

In 1870 the double-cropped area was 4,119 acres, and this was more than doubled during the currency of the settlement. In the past few years the increase has been well maintained, the present average being 14,326 acres or 16·02 per cent. of the net area under cultivation. The gain thus effected has been shared by both harvests but especially by the *kharif*, which now averages 51,982 acres as compared with 49,982 sown in the *rabi*. The relative position of the two harvests varies with the nature of the season, the *rabi* being subject to great fluctuations. The principal spring crop is barley, which alone or mixed with gram occupies 51·13 per cent. of the area sown; and then comes wheat, covering 11·21 per cent. when grown by itself, and 30·37 in combination with barley or gram. The latter sown alone makes up 3·71 per cent., and the balance consists in poppy, averaging 311 acres, garden crops, potatoes and tobacco. As usual *juar*, mixed with *arhar*, is the main *kharif* staple, taking up 55·84 per cent. of the area, followed by maize

with 11·61, cotton and *arhar* with 11·12, rice, both early and late, with 8·23 and *bajra* and *arhar* with 4·01 per cent. Sugarcane averages 1,138 acres, and has remained stationary for a long period, and indigo, though once of great importance, has dropped to 409 acres and is rapidly disappearing. *Garden crops constitute the bulk of the remainder, their importance being due to the proximity of the city.* A notable feature in the composition of the autumn crops is the great increase in the cultivation of maize, a staple which is one of the first to be reaped and therefore is less susceptible than others to the effect of a premature cessation of the rains.

At the time of the last settlement the total area included in holdings was 86,568 acres, and of this 10 per cent. was cultivated by proprietors, 56·5 by occupancy tenants, 30·6 by tenants-at-will and 2·9 per cent. was rent-free. Both the occupancy and the proprietary areas have declined of late years, the former to the extent of some 12 per cent., the result in either case of numerous transfers, involving the attempt on the part of the purchasers to collect in full rents that had been fictitiously raised for sale purposes. The average cash rental for the entire tahsil is Rs. 5·75, and in this respect there is but little difference between the rates of privileged and other tenants. For the rich garden lands near the city very high rates are paid, and the average for Kachhis is no less than Rs. 8·92 per acre. For the ordinary cultivating castes the rate is almost identical: of the entire tenant-held area Brahmans cultivate 21·4, Rajputs 21·3, Ahir 17·6 and Lodhs 7·1 per cent., the rate in each instance being about Rs. 5·25. Kachhis hold 5·4 per cent., and then come Musalmans and several miscellaneous castes. The rise in the rental has been much the same as in other parganas, the average rate at the preceding settlement being Rs. 5·03 per acre.

The revenue of the tahsil at successive settlements is shown in the appendix, and the figures demonstrate that the decrease in the demand during the past century has been greater than in any other part of the district.* At the present time the 226 villages of the tahsil are divided into

* Appendix table IX and X.

528 *mahals*, excluding the alluvial area, and of the latter 191 are single and 269 joint *zamindari*, 44 are perfect and 24 are imperfect *pattidari*. In early days the bulk of the tahsil belonged to the Chandels, while the remainder, comprising the south and south-east, was divided between Gautams, Bais, Chaubans and others, Jajmau itself and seventeen villages in the neighbourhood being held by Musalmans. The history of the Chandels has already been narrated, and at the present time they own but a fraction of their former estates. The Chauhan property, known as the Ramaipur *taluka*, has been entirely sold, but the Bais and Gautams still possess a fair number of villages. Other old proprietors include the Chaube Chaudhris of Majhawan, the Tiwari Chaudhris of Tirna and the Dube Chaudhris of Bithur, but in every case the property has been much reduced. It has been calculated that by 1840 the old *zamindars* had lost one-third of their ancestral holdings, while thirty years later little more than one-third remained to them. During the currency of the last settlement some 37,500 acres were sold, the purchasers being chiefly Brahmans, money-lenders and traders of Cawnpore. In 1870 Rajputs still retained 54 per cent. of the area; but the proportion is now little more than a third, and only 42 entire villages remain in the hands of the hereditary proprietors.

CHAUBEPUR, *Tahsil* SHEORAJPUR.

A large village standing in 26° 37' N. and 80° 11' E., on the grand trunk road and the Cawnpore-Achhnera line of railway, some eight miles south from Sheorajpur and sixteen miles from the district headquarters. There is a railway station here, and from it a road runs westwards to Sheoli continuing in the opposite direction to Bithur. The population numbered 2,172 souls in 1847 and this had risen by 1872 to 2,366, while in 1891 it was 2,647. Subsequent years however have witnessed a decline, the total in 1901 being 2,108, including 408 Musalmans and a large number of Brahmans, from whom the place derives its name. The village lands are watered by the Chaubepur and Taktauli distributaries of the canal, and are highly assessed at Rs. 1,176: the owners are Brahmans and Banias. There is an encamping ground here with a store *dépôt* attached,

as well as a post-office and an upper primary school. The market is one of the most important in the district, and a brisk trade is carried on in cattle, potatoes, tobacco and other agricultural produce. There are two or three good temples in the village, and a large fair takes place at the full moon of Kartik: it goes by the name of the Kanslila, and is attended by some 15,000 persons.

DEOHA, *Tahsil* BILHAUR.

The village of Deoha stands in $26^{\circ} 51'$ N. and $80^{\circ} 1'$ E., at a distance of four miles north-west from Bilhaur and 38 miles from Cawnpore, on the road leading from the former to Makanpur. The village lands comprise part of the sandy valley of the Isan, which flows to the east of the site, and on the west are irrigated by the Deoha minor which takes out of the Sheorajpur distributary. The area is 1,294 acres, of which about 990 are cultivated, and the revenue is Rs. 2,380: the proprietors of the eight *mahals* into which the village is divided are Kayasths, Sheikhs and Brahmans. The population in 1847 was 1,884 and had risen to 2,022 by 1872, while in 1891 it was 2,199 and at the last census 2,269, of whom 745 were Musalmans. There is an upper primary school here and a small bazar. The place is frequently called Qasba Deoha and is an old Sheikh settlement, though the name is said to be derived from one Deoha, an Ahir who first cleared the jungle and brought the land under cultivation. In the days of Akbar it gave its name to a pargana, which remained distinct from Bilhaur till the cession of the district to the British.

DERAPUR, *Tahsil* DERAPUR.

The capital of the Derapur pargana and tahsil is a considerable village standing on the south or right bank of the Sengar in $26^{\circ} 25'$ N. and $79^{\circ} 47'$ E., at a distance of nine miles south-west from Rura station, with which it is connected by a metalled road, and 35 miles west from Cawnpore. The Sengar is unbridged, and from the north bank an unmetalled road goes north-westwards to Mangalpur, while from the south of the village three similar roads lead to Akbarpur, Bhognipur and Sikandra. The place is

an old Muhammadan settlement and was once of importance: there are several old mosques, in some cases in ruins, a fine masonry tank called the Sahas-kund, and the remains of a fort built by Gobind Rao Pandit, the governor of the province during the Maratha administration from 1756 to 1762. The present importance of Derapur lies in the fact that it contains the tahsil headquarters, as well as a police station, a registration office, a post-office, a dispensary and an inspection bungalow, as well as an upper primary school. Markets are held twice a week in the bazar, but the trade is purely local. The population rose from 1,970 in 1847 to 2,149 in 1872, but in 1891 was only 1,944, while at the last census it had again fallen to 1,930 of whom 646 were Musalmans. The Qazi family has declined but still retains a portion of the village lands, which are shared with Brahmans and Kayasths. The total area is 896 acres, of which about 460 are cultivated, and the revenue demand is Rs. 710.

DERAPUR Tahsil.

The Derapur subdivision lies in the west of the district, adjoining the Etawah boundary and marching on the east with Akbarpur and Sheorajpur. To the north lies Bilhaur and to the south Bhognipur, the total area being 198,153 acres or 309.61 square miles. The tahsil is one of those that underwent important changes in 1894, when Rasulabad was abolished. The original pargana of Derapur is said to have consisted of 100 villages separated from Akbarpur Shahpur in the days of Akbar, and this area remained distinct until after the cession of the district to the British. The central and western portion was known as Mangalpur, that pargana having been separated from Sikandra in 1755 and bestowed on a nobleman named Mangal Khan. The two were united in 1808 to form a single tahsil, and in 1840 the area was increased by the transfer of eight villages from Rasulabad. A further important change was made in 1861, when the combined pargana of Sikandra Bilaspur was amalgamated with Derapur, and the northern boundary of the reconstituted tahsil then ran a short distance to the north of the Etawah branch of the Ganges canal, while on the south the boundary extended to the Jumna. In 1894

a large strip of country, comprising 67 villages, was added to Derapur from Rasulabad, while at the same time 77 villages of Sikandra were assigned to Bhognipur, the transaction resulting in a net loss of 7,706 acres.

Owing to these changes it is impossible to ascertain the population of the existing tahsil at the time of the earlier enumerations. Derapur and Sikandra combined had a total of 113,647 inhabitants in 1853, and the figure rose to 122,374 in 1865, to 123,558 in 1872 and to 124,746 in 1881, but ten years later it was found to have fallen to 112,244. The population of the present area in 1891 was 140,008, and the following decade saw a marked increase, the total in 1901 being 149,593, of whom 69,720 were females, the average density being 486 to the square mile. Classified by religions there were 141,596 Hindus, 7,985 Musalmans, 11 Aryas and one Sikh. Brahmans constitute the principal Hindu caste, numbering 22,285 persons; and next come Chamars with 20,095, Rajputs with 16,771, Ahirs with 14,264, Gadariyas with 9,031, Kachhis with 7,261 and Lodhis with 6,512. Other castes occurring in numbers exceeding two thousand are Telis, Koris, Kurnis, Dhanuks, Nais, Kahlars, Dhobis and Banias. The Rajputs, who are remarkably numerous, belong to a great variety of clans; but by far the most important are the Gaurs, who numbered 8,345 souls and have their headquarters at Khanpur Dilwal. Kachhwahas, Sengars and Chauhans also are found in strength, while there are fair numbers of Rathors, Bhadaurias and Chandels. The bulk of the Musalman population consists of Sheikhs, Pathans, Behnas and Faqirs.

The tahsil contains 289 villages; but the only town is Derapur itself; for though several places have large populations they are merely overgrown agricultural communities. Such are Mangalpur, Khanpur, Dilwal, Banipara, Ratanpur, Kishaura and Khamaila, all of which contain over two thousand inhabitants. There is little trade except in agricultural produce, and no industries of any importance; and this is borne out by the census returns, which show that nearly 72 per cent. of the people are directly dependent on cultivation, exclusive of 6·5 per cent. shown under the head of general labour.

Means of communication are generally sufficient for the requirements of the tract. Through the centre runs the main line of the East Indian Railway, with a station at Jhinjhak, while Derapur is connected by a metalled road with the Rura station, a short distance beyond the eastern boundary. A number of unmetalled roads, for the most part of an indifferent description, traverse the tahsil in every direction, the chief being those from Derapur to Akbarpur, Sikandra, Mangalpur and Sheoli, from Mangalpur to Sikandra, Etawah, Sheoli and Rasulabad and from Rasulabad to Rura. The chief need of the tahsil is a bridge over the Sengar, which in the rains constitutes a great obstacle to traffic. The ferries are shown in the appendix, where also will be found the markets, fairs, schools and post-offices of the subdivision.

For administrative purposes Derapur is in the charge of a full-powered officer on the district staff, assisted by a tahsildar, while at the present time Thakur Gyan Singh has magisterial powers of the third-class within the limits of the tahsil. In the matter of civil jurisdiction the area is included in the circle of the Akbarpur munsif. Police stations are located at Derapur and Mangalpur, but many of the northern villages belong to the Rasulabad and Kainjri *thanas*, and the south-west corner forms part of the Sikandra circle.

The physical characteristics of the tahsil are determined principally by the Rind and Sengar, which form the main drainage lines of the tract. Generally it resembles Akbarpur, though the standard of fertility is somewhat higher. The Rind flows in a deep bed, flanked on either side by high and undulating banks, scored by innumerable ravines and covered in many places with a valuable growth of *dhak* jungle. The course of the river throughout the tahsil is very tortuous, but is generally at a distance of about three miles from the Bilhaur border. Several small affluents join the Rind on its left bank and carry down the drainage from Bilhaur, the chief being the Siyari and the Chhoha. The soil on either side of the river is of a sandy and gritty nature, but is almost continuously cultivated up to the very edge of the ravines. South of the Rind it changes gradually into

a wide and homogeneous tract of fairly fertile loam, resembling that of southern Sheorajpur and decidedly superior to the stiff soils of Akbarpur. Through the centre runs the Etawah branch of the Ganges canal, giving off the Mangalpur and Jhinhak distributaries which supply the Bisoha, Razapur, Nonari and other minors. On either side of the canal is a well-marked depression consisting of a line of swamps running across the tahsil from the Etawah border to Sithmara, the chief being the group of lakes known as the Koelar, Johna, Baraila and Mangalpur, and the Hisaul, Jalihapur and Kauria *jhils*. The soil stiffens into clay in these depressions, of which the larger are surrounded by *usar* and *dhak* jungle. The soil deteriorates towards the Sengar, becoming gradually lighter and less fertile, while along the banks of the watercourses which carry down the drainage of the uplands into that river it is a mere sandy *bhur*. These include the Dharla, the Ratwaha and the Liljhi, each of which has a fairly deep channel, flanked by broken and almost sterile land. The banks of the Sengar, which is a larger river than the Pandu and flows through the tahsil in a winding course at an average distance of about six miles from the southern border, are scored by rugged and precipitous ravines, sparsely overgrown with worthless scrub jungle, and the cultivation in their neighbourhood is of the poorest and most precarious description. The strip of land south of the Sengar closely resembles the rest of the old Sikandra pargana, having a stiffish grey loam soil in which, owing to the great depth of the waterlevel, means of irrigation are very scanty save in the parts within the reach of canal water. The latter is a recent introduction and is supplied by the Bhognipur branch and its distributaries, such as the Bharsain, Kasolar, Kaklapur, Alipur, Antapur and Nanthu.

Considering the large amount of barren land the tahsil has attained a fairly high standard of development. At the settlement of 1870 the area under the plough was 119,517 acres or 60·33 per cent. of the whole, and the figure continued to rise till 1881-82, when it reached the maximum area of 123,296 acres. Then a decline set in, the total falling steadily till 1897-98 when it was no more than 110,020. Latterly there has been an improvement, though much of

the inferior land along the Sengar has been abandoned, the average for the five years ending in 1906-07 being 116,448 acres or 58·76 per cent. The barren area averages 45,666 acres or 23·05 per cent., though of this 4,257 acres are under water and a considerable amount is permanently occupied by sites, roads and the like. The remaining 36,039 acres are classed as culturable, including 4,378 acres of grove land and 4,450 of current fallow; but most of it is of little value and the proportion that repays reclamation is very small.

The introduction of canals in the tract south of the Sengar has immensely benefited that part of the tahsil owing to the great scarcity of wells, water being seldom found at a less depth than 70 feet from the surface. At the present time irrigation is afforded to 42·12 per cent. of the area cultivated, and in some years the proportion is much higher. Out of an average of 49,046 acres 32,731, or 66·74 per cent., are supplied from the various canals, 31·42 per cent. from wells and a very small amount from tanks and other sources. Wells are abundant in the country north of the Rind, and have greatly increased in number during recent years.

The decrease in the cultivated area is more apparent than real, for there has been a very marked expansion in the area bearing two crops in the year, which has risen from 3,761 acres in 1870 to a present average of 18,937, or 16·26 per cent. of the net cultivation. This has brought about a great increase in both harvests, but especially in the case of the *rabi*, which averages 66,810 acres as against 71,279 sown in the *kharif*: the annual fluctuations are considerable, though the *kharif* remains fairly constant, the *rabi* area exceeding 81,000 acres in 1904-05 while in the next year the decline was very great.* The main autumn staple is *juar* mixed with *arhar*, which occupies 43·08 per cent. of the area sown; and next follow cotton and *arhar* with 21·62, maize with 13·44; *bajra* and *arhar* with 10·57, and rice, chiefly of the early variety, with 4·32 per cent. Sugarcane averages 1,962 acres, and is comparatively unimportant, and indigo, in spite of various experiments and the establishment of factories at Mangalpur, Khamaila and elsewhere, is fast disappearing. In

* Appendix, table VI.

the *rabi* barley occupies the usual predominant position, averaging 47·68 per cent. of the area, though this includes barley mixed with gram. Wheat alone makes up 19·35, and in combination with gram or barley 22·52, while gram alone covers 4·94 per cent. The remainder consists in poppy, 1,286 acres, garden crops, and a little tobacco.

The remarkable feature in the cultivating tenures of Derapur is the unusual extent of the occupancy holdings, which now cover 82,336 acres or 67 per cent. of a total of 122,912 acres, as compared with 73,186 acres in 1870. This proportion is the highest in the district, but the increase has been accompanied with a decided reduction in the area held by each tenant. Of the rest 14 per cent. is cultivated by proprietors and 16 per cent. by tenants-at-will, while 2·3 per cent. is rent-free. The average cash rental is Rs. 5·19 per acre, cultivators with occupancy rights paying Rs. 4·97 and tenants-at-will Rs. 6·04. There has been a general rise in the course of thirty years to the amount of $19\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., owing, no doubt, to the improvement in the tract resulting from the extension of canals. The cultivating castes are much the same as in the other northern parganas, Brahmans holding 21·5, Rajputs 19, Ahirs 14 and Gadariyas 7·1 per cent.; while Kachhis, Lodhis and Chamars hold about five per cent. apiece. There is but little difference in the rental of the various castes, save that Kachhis pay on an average Rs. 6·15 and Ahirs, who are mainly confined to the inferior tracts along the rivers, pay Rs. 4·75 per acre.

The revenue of the tahsil at successive settlement is shown in the appendix, but no exact comparison of the present and past figures can be established by reason of the alterations in the area.* The 289 villages are at present divided into 962 *mahals*, of which 255 are held by single proprietors, 528 are joint *zamindari*, 119 are perfect and 60 imperfect *pattidari*. Originally it is said the whole area was owned by the Meos, and these were displaced by the Gaurs who gradually acquired the entire tahsil, with the exception of the south-east corner, which was held by Brahmans, Ahirs and the Musalman Chaudhris of Derapur. Subsequently a number of villages were granted by the Gaurs to Brahmans, one of whose

* Appendix, table IX and X.

chief settlements is at Khamaila. More recently Brahmans have increased their possessions by purchase, notably the Misr family of Hatka; while on the other hand many of the old Gaur estates have been broken up, especially in the Rasulabad portion of the tahsil. Rajputs still however are the chief proprietors, the biggest estates being those of Khanpur Dilwal, Nonari and Jalihapur; and next come Brahmans, Kurmis, Musalmans and Ahirs.

DOMANPUR, *Tahsil* NARWAL.

Domanpur is the most easterly village of the district and stands on the bank of the Ganges in the extreme east of the tahsil, adjoining the Fatehpur border, in $26^{\circ} 16'$ N. and $80^{\circ} 34'$ E., at a distance of seven miles east from Narwal, three miles south from Najafgarh and 19 miles from Cawnpore. It probably derives its name from Doman Deo, one of the most notable of the Saibasi Bais chieftains of the Rai Bareilly district, and for a time gave its name to a separate pargana merged at the cession in Salempur. In 1847 the village contained a population of 2,285 souls; but of late years it has greatly declined the total falling to 1,602 in 1891 while at the last census it was only 1,363, mainly, Rajputs. The area of the village is 1,974 acres, including a large alluvial *katri* of considerable though varying value. The revenue is Rs. 2,315, and the proprietors are Gantam and Parihar Rajputs, Brahmans, Banias and Kachhis. There is a ferry here over the Ganges, but the village contains nothing of any interest.

DUNDWA JAMAULI, *Tahsil* BILHAUR.

A considerable village standing in $26^{\circ} 43'$ N. and $80^{\circ} 3'$ E., at a distance of six miles due south from Bilhaur and three miles north-west from Pura on the railway and grand trunk road. It is a purely agricultural place, owned partly by Gaharwar Rajputs and partly by a well known family of resident Brahmans, at the head of which is Dwarka Prasad, who holds a large property in this and other parganas. The village had an area of 2,412 acres, and is irrigated by the Sheorajpur and Dubiana distributaries of the Cawnpore branch canal: some 1,320 acres are cultivated, and the revenue is Rs. 5,500. The population in 1847 numbered 2,205

persons and this had risen to 2,674 by 1872, though it has since fallen to 2,512 in 1891 and at the last census to 2,352, of whom 99 were Musalmans, while Brahmans formed nearly one-third of the whole number. There is a lower primary school here, and markets are held twice a week.

GAHLON, *Tahsil* AKBARPUR.

A village situated in the north of the tahsil, on the east or left bank of the Rind river, in $26^{\circ} 31' N.$ and $79^{\circ} 58' E.$, at a distance of five miles north-east from Rura station and twelve miles north from the tahsil headquarters. It is noticeable as possessing a post-office, an upper primary school and an aided school for girls, as well as a bazar of some local importance in which markets are held twice a week: there is a considerable trade in tobacco, which is extensively grown in the neighbourhood. The place formerly gave its name to a *taluka* of 24 villages held by Chamar Gaurs of the race of Bular Singh, one of the seven sons of Pathar Deo, the first chieftain of the clan. The Gaurs have long lost the whole of their property, Gahlon itself being now in the hands of Brahmans. It is a very small village with an area of 255 acres, assessed at Rs. 330. The population of Gahlon proper at the last census was but 111 persons, but the inhabited site belongs to a large number of *manzas* including, in addition to Gahlon Jarvi, those known as Nijabatpur, Bharti, Tipu, Sahsi, Sirsi, Narsujha, Muridpur, Arnaalnyai and Bhairon Shahjahanpur. These had a combined population of 3,333 souls, of whom 144 were Musalmans.

GAJNER, *Tahsil* AKBARPUR.

A large village in the extreme south of the tahsil, standing in $26^{\circ} 17' N.$ and $80^{\circ} 3' E.$, at the junction of several unmetalled roads leading from Akbarpur on the north-west, Sarwan Khera and Sachendi on the north-east, Patara on the south-east, Musanagar on the south-west and Girsi and Pukhrayan on the west. The distance from the headquarters of the tahsil is nine and from Cawnpore 24 miles. To the north-east of the site flows the Neor, a tributary of the Non, and the surrounding country is low and ill-drained, full of *usar* and liable to suffer from *kans* grass. The place is in a

decayed state, and the population, which in 1872 numbered 3,530 souls, fell to 3,164 in 1881 and to 2,517 ten years later. while in 1901 the total was 2,339, of whom 447 were Musalmans. For many years Gajner was administered as a town under Act XX of 1856, but the measure was withdrawn in 1895. Save for a small and diminishing amount of weaving, the only industry is agriculture. There is an unimportant market, but a large fair is held annually in Jeth in honour of Ghazi Pir. The trade is mainly in cattle, and the *zamindars* realise a considerable profit from the tolls levied on sales. Gajner possesses a police station, a post-office, a cattle-pound, two mosques and an upper primary school. The area of the *mauza* is 1,789 acres, of which about 1,125 are under cultivation, and the revenue demand is Rs. 2,589. There are ten *mahals*, and the proprietors are Brahmans and Chauhan Rajputs.

GHATAMPUR, *Tahsil* GHATAMPUR.

The capital of the Ghatampur *pargana* and *tahsil* is a small town standing in 26° 9' N. and 80° 10' E., on the metalled road from Cawnpore to Hamirpur, at a distance of 27 miles from the district headquarters. The road is here crossed by the old Mughal road, and others lead to Tilsanda on the north and to Bhadeona on the north-east. The place is said to have been founded by one Ghatam Deo, a Bais chieftain who expelled the Ahirs and defeated their leader Buldans, taking their stronghold of Kurian. The tradition is uncertain, but Ghatampur is undoubtedly an old place and possesses an ancient temple dedicated to Kudha Devi. Amidst the mango groves to the south of the town are to be seen the lofty spire of the Goshain temple, built by one Balbhaddar Gir about three centuries ago. Attached to it is a *math*, which is maintained from the revenues of the village of Narayanpur.

The town comprises the sites of Ghatampur, Hafizpur and Sihari, and in 1847 contained 3,988 souls: the total had fallen to 3,350 in 1872 and to 3,294 in 1891, while at the last census it was 3,274, including 1,163 Musalmans. Besides the *tahsil* buildings, it contains a police station, a dispensary, a post-office, a cattle-pound, a middle vernacular school and a

lower primary school. Markets are held twice a week and the trade is considerable, but country cloth is the only manufacture of the place. Section 34 of Act V of 1861 is in force here. There is an encamping-ground with a store *dépôt* near the main road, and close to the town is a mission bungalow, the place being a cold-weather out-station of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. Formerly an agricultural settlement was maintained by the mission, but was abandoned a few years ago. The *mauza* of Ghatampur is 1,906 acres in extent, and is assessed at Rs. 2,318. It is owned partly by the Gaurs of Khanpur Dilwal and partly by Brahmans and Banias.

GHATAMPUR *Tahsil*.

This is the southernmost sub-division of the district, and comprises a large block of country bounded on the south-east by the Kora pargana of Fatchpur and on the south and west by the Jumna, which separates it from the Hamirpur district. To the north-west lies Bhognipur, to the north Akbarpur, to the north-east Cawnpore and on the east the Narwal tahsil. The total area is 221,081 acres or 345.44 square miles. The tahsil was left unchanged in 1894; but considerable alterations took place at the first regular settlement in 1840, when eight villages were transferred to Akbarpur, five to Bhognipur and two to Kora, while in return the pargana received eleven from Bhognipur, 22 from Kora and 66 from Sarh.

In the days of Akbar the tract was known as Ghatampur; but its area was much smaller than at present, since the existing subdivision comprises also the pargana of Akbarpur Birbal, containing 63 villages taken from Shahpur and named after Akbar's famous minister. In the days of Oudh rule Akbarpur Birbal was united with Kora, but at the cession it was amalgamated with Ghatampur to form a single tahsil, though the accounts were kept separate till 1807. At one period two small parganas were formed out of Ghatampur under the names of Kanauta and Shukrpur Paras, but these had a very brief existence and their respective areas are not known.

The tahsil now forms a subdivision of the district in the charge of a full-powered officer assisted by a tahsildar stationed at Ghatampur, while for the purpose of civil jurisdiction it is included in the circle of the Akbarpur munsif. There are police stations at Ghatampur and Sajeti, but 39 villages in the north are included in the Gajner *thana* and 35 in the west belong to that of Musanagar.

The tahsil lies at some distance from the railway, but it is traversed from north to south by the metalled road from Cawnpore to Hamirpur, and this is crossed at Ghatampur by the old Mughal road from Kora to Etawah. The latter bears a very heavy traffic and might with advantage be metalled, especially as *kankar* is abundant in its vicinity. Other roads lead from Ghatampur to Sarh and Gajner, from the latter place to Patara and Musanagar, from Rampur on the Jumna to Kora, crossing at Baripal that from Srinagar to Amaulj in Fatehpur, and from Baripal to join the Sarh road at Bhadeona. Several ferries lead across the Jumna to the Hamirpur district, for which reference should be made to the appendix, where also will be found lists of the schools, post-offices, markets and fairs of the tahsil. The markets are generally unimportant, that of Ghatampur being the chief, while Baripal is a centre for the *ghi*, grain and cotton trade of the neighbourhood.

The population of the tahsil has remained almost stationary for the past 50 years. The total rose from 124,802 in 1853 to 125,076 in 1865, but then dropped to 123,875 in 1872 and again to 113,946 in 1881. Since that date there has been some recovery, the number of inhabitants rising to 117,797 in 1891, while at the last census it was 124,662, including 59,772 females. The average density is 366 to the square mile, this being the lowest proportion in the district. The total comprised 118,851 Hindus, 5,735 Musalmans, 34 Christians, 29 Aryas and 13 Jains. Among the Hindus Brahmans predominate, numbering 18,706 souls, and next come Chamars with 18,346, Ahirs with 11,571, Kurmis with 10,578, Rajputs with 7,549, Koris with 6,688 and Kachhis with 6,260. Other castes occurring in numbers exceeding two thousand are Gadariyas, Nais, Baniyas and Lohars. Among the Rajputs 2,090 belong to the Panwar clan, the remainder being

principally Bais, Kachhwahas, Chandels, Sengars, Parihars, Gaurs and Gautams, though several others, such as the Chauhans, Dikhits and Rathors, are well represented. Of the Musalmans the great majority are Sheikhs, numbering 3,271 persons, the rest being mainly Pathans, Behnas and Faqirs.

There are in all 247 villages, several being of considerable size, although Ghatampur alone can be described as a town. Patara, Kurian, Paras, Targaon, Padri Lalpur and Hathei each contain over two thousand inhabitants, but in most cases they are otherwise quite insignificant. Save for a small and decreasing amount of cotton-weaving, there are no industries worthy of mention and the tahsil is almost wholly agricultural, over 65 per cent. of the inhabitants being directly dependent on cultivation and an additional ten per cent. on general labour.

The river Rind forms the north-eastern boundary of the tahsil, and in the eight villages along its course the country closely resembles that found in Akbarpur: a small strip of alluvial land near the stream gives place to a belt of undulating ground, covered with a sparse jungle of *dhak* and scrub, interspersed with a few patches of *usar*; and beyond this is a fully cultivated plain with a light sandy loam soil of the variety known as *pilia*, amply irrigated by wells and the canal.

The Non drains the centre of the tahsil, keeping a southerly course till it approaches to within three miles of the Jumna, when it bends south-eastwards into Fatehpur. At first it is fringed by a low alluvial *tarai*, but this soon disappears as the bed becomes deeper, and in its place there is a stretch of wild and rugged country in which the soil is impoverished by erosion and denudation, the ravines in some places being fully as extensive as those along the Jumna.

The latter river has much the same effect on its bank as in Bhognipur, although the ravines here are not of the same magnitude, and in the large western bend are entirely replaced by a broad depression, which possibly represents a former channel like the Sanao. Immediately adjoining the stream is a low strip of *tir* or *tarai*, of no extent where the river keeps close to the high bank, but widening out into a sandy expanse of tamarisk jungle in the interior of the bends, as at Akbarpur Birbal. Further inland, above the ordinary waterline,

is a belt of level or gently sloping *kachhar*, far more extensive than in Bhognipur; its soil is a light loam of no great fertility, though it fetches high rents by reason of its marked superiority over the worthless upper plateau. Above this *kachhar* extends a series of rugged ravines, in most places covered with low scrub jungle and infested with leopards and other wild animals. These give place to the Jumna uplands, a tract about four miles in width, with the characteristic Bundelkhand soils known as *parwa*, which is the commonest, being a light friable loam; *kabar*, a dark brown soil that can only be worked when sufficiently moistened by the rains; and *rakar*, an uneven gravelly *bhur* found in the ravines, beyond the reach of canals and incapable of irrigation owing to the fact that the water-level is from 60 to 80 feet below the surface. Occasionally too *mar*, the familiar black cotton soil, is to be seen in the fields just above the ravines. On the whole the Jumna tract in this tahsil is perhaps superior to the similar circle in Bhognipur, both in its natural capabilities and also because the cultivation is mainly in the hands of industrious Kurnis.

The rest of the tahsil, comprising the land on either side of the Non, is of a varied description, and practically all the natural soils in the district are here represented. The north-west portion between the Bhognipur border and the Non is a continuation of the swampy tract of Akbarpur with its stiff loam soil, but further south it changes gradually into a sort of *kabar*, of little value save in the vicinity of the canal. Southwards again, between the Non and the Jumna, is a block of level but absolutely dry villages, with a light grey loam sometimes known as *kaintha*, of which the inhabitants are principally Kurnis, whose chief settlements are at Bari-pal and Dharmangadpur. To the east of the Non, between that river and the Hamirpur road, are several more patches of swampy land, the largest comprising the villages of Balram-pur, Katra and Birpur, and culminating in the great lake of Jahangirabad, the most important *jhil* in the tahsil. East of the metalled and north of the Mughal road lies a series of villages containing an immense proportion of *usar*, and south of these, along a subsidiary drainage channel, is a good deal of sandy *bhur*: while towards the Fatehpur border reappears

the light dry loam resembling *kabar* which is found in the parts adjoining the Jumna tract to the west.

The tahsil has a larger proportion of cultivated land than any other in the district, but this is due rather to the energy of the cultivating classes than to the natural capabilities of the tract. At the first regular settlement in 1840 the area under tillage was 127,946 acres, while thirty years later it had risen to 139,484 or 63·6 per cent. of the whole. The latter was an abnormally high figure, and was due to the extension of cultivation in the ravines and dry tracts. It remained at a high level for several years; but a decline set in about 1891, the lowest amount on record being 113,402 acres in 1896-97. Since that date there has been a decided improvement, and for the five years ending with 1906-07 the average was 137,474 acres or 62·18 per cent. of the entire area. Much of this is of a precarious nature, and there is little room for further expansion. The barren area is 39,027 acres, including 8,014 under water and about 7,500 permanently occupied by buildings, roads and the like. There remain 44,580 acres or 20·17 per cent. classed as culturable, though from this should be deducted 8,353 acres of groves and 3,129 acres of current fallow, while the rest in most cases is of a very worthless description and its classification is highly optimistic.

The area irrigated is lower than in any other part of the district, not excepting Bhognipur, at present averaging 29,249 acres or 21·28 per cent. of the net cultivation. Of this 24,122 acres or 82·47 per cent. are watered from canals, 3,489 from wells and 1,637 acres from tanks and other sources. Even so there has been a very great increase in the total owing to the extension of the canal system; for wells have been supplanted to a very small extent and have actually increased in number. Their use is confined to the villages in the east and north, for elsewhere the cost of construction and working is almost prohibitive by reason of the great depth of the water-level. Other sources are available in several parts, but they are essentially precarious and liable to fail altogether in seasons of draught. The Etawah branch of the Ganges canal traverses the western portion of the tahsil, tailing into the Jumna at Garahtha, but it is used only as an escape and irrigation is obtained solely from the distributaries, of which the chief are the Akbarpur

on the west, which for the most part lies beyond the limits of the tahsil but supplies a considerable area through its minors, such as the Girsi, Ichhauli and Makhauli; the Reona, which follows the east bank of the main canal and waters a strip about four miles in width, and also feeds the Hathei distributary; and the Ghatampur, which with its numerous ramifications commands the country east of the Non. This last has been greatly extended of late, principally between 1895 and now it is carried well into the Fatehpur district, and in this 1900. Formerly it ended in the Non near Ghatampur, but tahsil gives off a number of minors such as the Bhadras, Jalala, Paras and Gujela, as well as the more recent Bari, Barauli and Allahdadpur. In some cases, however, the supply is very scanty, and though the benefit derived from the canal is great, still there are vast stretches of country which are far removed from its influence.

The *rabi* area as a rule largely exceeds the *kharif* in extent, though occasionally the positions are reversed. On an average the former covers 78,436 as compared with 72,745 acres sown in the latter, while 15,388 acres or 11·19 per cent. of the net area tilled bear two crops in the year. This proportion is much below the district average, but has immensely increased during recent years, as in 1870 there were only 3,267 acres of *do-fasli* land. To the same cause is to be assigned the more rapid expansion of the *rabi* area, the *kharif* having remained almost stationary. The chief spring crops included barley, which alone and in combination covers 39·41 per cent. of the area sown in this harvest; wheat, occupying by itself 1·17 and mixed with barley or gram 24·2; and gram, which when sown alone makes up 15·22 per cent. of the area. To these figures should be added a considerable amount of the three crops in combination under the name of *gojai*, while the rest consists mainly in peas, garden crops and poppy, the last averaging 213 acres. In the *kharif* the lead is taken by *juar*, either sown alone or mixed with *arhar*, making up 46·65 per cent. of the whole *kharif* area; and then come cotton and *bajra*, in either case often sown with *arhar*, covering 25·11 and 11·81 per cent., respectively. Rice, almost exclusively of the early variety, averages 7·24 per cent., a figure exceeded in Akbarpur alone; and of the other crops maize occupies 968

acres, sugarcane 592 and indigo 300 acres. The cultivation of sugarcane has declined, in spite of the spread of canal irrigation, and it is practically confined to a few Kurmi villages on the Narwal and Fatehpur border.

At the recent settlement the total area included in holdings was 144,032 acres, and of this 11·4 per cent. is cultivated by proprietors, 56·8 by occupancy tenants, 29·2 by tenants-at-will and 2·6 per cent. is rent-free. There had been a great decrease in the area of *sir* and *khudkasht* as the result of the numerous transfers that had taken place, the latter aggregating about 42 per cent. of the entire tahsil. Occupancy holdings also show a decrease, but the reduction from 84,051 acres in 1870 to 81,924 at the last settlement is much less than in many other parts of the district. The occupancy rental averages Rs. 4·04 per acre and that of tenants-at-will Rs. 3·98, the reason for this apparent anomaly being that the former hold the better lands, as is also the case in Bhognipur, while in similar holdings the latter actually pay about 12 per cent. more. The general cash rate for the entire tahsil is Rs. 4·02 per acre, the highest average being Rs. 5·31 for Kachhis, while on the other hand Rajputs pay Rs. 3·54. Among the various castes Kurmis come first, cultivating 21·4 per cent. of the tenant-held area and paying Rs. 4·26; then follow Brahmans with 20·8 per cent. and a rental of Rs. 3·95; and after them Rajputs and Ahirs with about 12 per cent. each, while prominent among the remainder are Chamars, Gadariyas, Kachhis, Kunihars and Musalmans.

The fiscal history of the tahsil is sufficiently illustrated by the revenue imposed at successive settlements, as shown in the appendix.* At the present time the 247 villages are divided into 640 *mahals*, of which 189 are single *zamindari*, 324 joint *zamindari*, 80 are perfect and 33 imperfect *pattidari*, and the remaining 14 are *bhaiyachara*, a form of tenure which is more common here than in any other part of the district. A small plot of 34 acres in the village of Narayanpur is revenue-free, tradition relating that about three hundred years ago one Balbhaddar Gir, a Goshain of Etawah, built a temple there, and that in consequence of his miraculous powers he was awarded by the *amil* a cash grant of Rs. 150 annually

* Appendix, tables IX and X.

and some land, this grant being afterwards maintained by the British Government. In former days the principal proprietors of the tahsil were Dikhit Rajputs in the north, Kurmis in the south, Panwars in the west and Jaganbansi Brahmans in the east, along the Narwal border, while others included the Bais of Patara and Ghatampur, the hereditary *qanungo* family of Kayasths, and a few Musalmans, mainly of Rajput origin. It has been calculated that by 1840 some 47 per cent. of the area had passed out of the hands of the old landowners, and that the proportion lost had risen to 61 per cent. thirty years later. Since that time in spite of the extensive transfers, Brahmans have added largely to their possession, as also have the Kurmis, while the Rajputs have held their own with fair success: in this tahsil they are fairly industrious, and do not scruple to perform the manual labour of agriculture. At the recent settlement Brahmans held 33·9, Rajputs 25·1 and Kurmis 19·2 per cent. of the total area: while Banias, Kayasths and Musalmans owned between five and six per cent. apiece. The Dikhits are said to have come from Kharagpur about a thousand years ago and to have gained possession of 181 villages, their leader being Ghatamdeo, one of whose sons became a Musalman and settled at Reona, where many of his descendants still reside. Some four thousand years later the Panwars colonised Kotra Makrandpur, Dohru and Kohra, the Bais settled in Patara, Baksara and other villages, the Chandels at Targaon and the Parihars at Gujela. The early Musalman villages were Behta, Padri Lalpur and Rampur, while the Kayasths, who have lost nearly half of their estates during the past thirty years, had their headquarters at Bhadras.

GHAUSGANJ, *vide* MUSANAGAR.

JAJMAU, *Tahsil* CAWNPORE.

The ancient town of Jajmau formerly gave its name to the Cawnpore pargana and tahsil, but is now a decayed place standing on the Ganges bank to the east of the Cawnpore cantonment, about four miles from the city. At the present day, the revenue *mauza* is called Bazidpur, but the name of Jajmau is still in general use. It is connected by a metalled road with

Cawnpore, while unmetalled roads lead to Ahirwan and Maharajpur on the grand trunk road. The place in 1847 contained 2,178 inhabitants, and this had risen to 2,778 in 1872, but by 1891 the total, including that of the competent hamlets, had fallen to 2,707, and at the last census it was 2,392, of whom 150 were Musalmans. The area of Bazidpur is 1,050 acres, assessed at Rs. 1,330, and the proprietors are Brahmans and Mallahs. Section 34 of Act V of 1861 has been applied to the town.

Tradition states that the ancient name was Siddhpuri, and some distance to the east of Jajmau there are still temples of Siddheswar and Siddha Devi, on the bank of the river together with a good masonry *ghat*, prettily situated and surrounded with orchards. It is held sacred by the Hindus and pilgrims resort hither in large numbers to bathe, especially on Mondays in the month of Sawan. The name Jajmau however is very old, and the place is mentioned by the geographer Albiruni. The high mound overhanging the river is supposed to be the fort of Raja Chandravarman the Chandel, and to have been the capital of the kingdom of Jijati, whence is derived the name Jajmau. According to tradition the city extended from old Cawnpore to Najafgarh; but though the site is obviously of great antiquity, there has been as yet no systematic exploration, nor has anything of definite historical value been brought to light. The mound is of vast dimensions being about a mile in length and some two hundred yards broad, dropping sharply on the land side to the general level of the country, while on the river front is a sheer cliff sixty feet or more in height. Everywhere are to be seen fragments of brick and pottery, the strata of brickwork extending in places to forty feet below the surface. The only buildings on the mound, apart from a station of the great trigonometrical survey at the eastern extremity, are the ruined house of the Jajmau Sheikhs, of no great age, and a small mosque bearing a Persian inscription which records its foundation by Qulich Khan, Sadr-us-Sadur of Dehli, in the year 1679. To the west of the mound is a fine masonry ghat on the river, built by a Bengali, and beyond this is a large house and garden, once the residence of Nasib Ali, who made a fortune as a railway contractor.

The village itself is a straggling place built among ravines. It contains a number of old tombs, one of which stands by the main road and is constructed of block *kankar* and brick, with traces of painted plaster decoration. The most interesting building however is the shrine of Makhdum Shah Ala-ul-Haq, a saint who is said to have accompanied Qutb-ud-din Aibak. His tomb is apparently constructed of old Hindu materials : but in its present form it is attributed to Firoz Shah, who very possibly put up the ancient sandal-wood doors of the *dargah*. Three inscriptions of that monarch are to be seen on the outer wall, two in excellent preservation, though the third has been much damaged by exposure to the elements. They narrate the visit of the Sultan to the shrine and his gift of land to the saint's descendant Sadr-ush-shahid Ghias-ul-Haq Muhammad bin Yusuf. The date is 761 Hijri or 1358 A. D. Adjoining the *dargah* is the house of the Qazi family, who are Faruqi Sheikhs and claim descent from Makhdum Shah : it is a fine specimen of domestic architecture, with a beautifully carved and decorated doorway. The father of Makhdum Shah, named Qazi Siraj-ud-din, is buried in a graveyard to the south of the road, called the Ganj-i-Shahidan or resting-place of the martyrs. The saint's brother is said to have been slain fighting against the infidels and his decapitated head flew to Tajmau, where it was buried in a curious abbreviated tomb by the side of Makhdum Shah.

JHINJHAK, *Tahsil* DEARAPUR.

An important village standing in 26° 34' N. and 79° 46' E., on the right bank of the Etawah branch canal, at a distance of 38 miles west-north-west from Cawnpore and eleven miles north from the tahsil headquarters. The canal is here crossed by a bridge, over which passes the road from Rasulabad to Mangalpur and Sikandra, and on the north side of the canal is an inspection bungalow. From the southern end of the bridge a road leads through the village to Indrukh near Derapur; and parallel to the canal runs the main line of the East Indian Railway, with a station close to Jhinjhak. The site belongs to the three villages of Jhinjhak, Tikangaon and Turna, and the population, which was 1,129 in 1847 and had risen to 1,720 in 1891, at the last census numbered 1,892 persons, of whom 160 were Musalmans. The combined area

of the three villages is 1,454 acres, and the revenue Rs. 2,873; the first two are owned by Rai Kanhaiya Lal Bahadur, an Agarwal Bania of Cawnpore, and Turna is the property of Thakur Raghunath Singh, a Gaur of Jalihapur. There is a market in Jhinhak of some local celebrity, as well as a post-office and a lower primary school. Just below the canal bridge are the outlets of the Jhinhak and the right and left Juria distributaries.

JUHI, *Tahsil* CAWNPORE.

The villages of Juhi Kalan and Juhi Khurd are mere suburbs of the city, part of the original *mauzas* actually lying within municipal limits. The former lies to the south of the grand trunk road, in the angle between it and the road to Ghatampur, while the latter is to the north of the grand trunk road, between the canal and the Indian Midland Railway. Owing to the proximity of the city the cultivated area is extremely valuable and, as the soil is naturally fertile, rents run very high. Juhi Kalan has a total area of 1,784 acres of which 775 are cultivated, and the revenue demand is Rs. 2,450. The area of Juhi Khurd is 1,375 acres, only 512 of which are under tillage, but no less than Rs. 3,665 is paid as revenue. The former is owned by Bais, Rajputs and Banias; while the latter is the property of Bais, Bisens, Brahmans, Banias and Chamars. The population of Juhi Kalan was 1,194 in 1847, but had risen to 1,435 in 1891 and at the last census to 1,747; that of Juhi Khurd was 1,665 in 1847, but by 1891 had increased to 4,054 and in 1901 to 5,627, including 1,001 Musalmans, and a very large number of Chamars, most of whom are employed in the adjacent mills. There is a post-office and a school in Juhi Kalan, and during the month of Chait an important fair is held in honour of Barah Devi.

KAINJRI, *Tahsil* BILHAUR.

There are several adjacent villages of Kainjri distinguished as Makrandpur Kainjri, Bhagwantpur Kainjri, Kainjri Khurd and Baranpur Kainjri, the last being in tahsil Sheorajpur, and Kainjri Khurd in Derapur. Makrandpur Kainjri is the most important, as possessing a police station, as well as a post-office, a cattle-pound and a bazar in which markets of some

local note are held twice a week. It stands in $26^{\circ} 36' N.$ and $79^{\circ} 55' E.$ in the extreme south-west of the tahsil, on the road from Sheoli to Rasulabad, at a distance of eight miles from the latter and 32 miles from Cawnpore. The population numbered 2,034 souls in 1847, but had fallen by 1891 to 1,916 and at the last census to 1,849, including 159 Musalmans and a large community of Brahmans. The place is the residence of Thakur Hulas Singh and many others who represent the eldest branch of the Chamar Gaur clan, though they never held the title of Raja. Save for a small share owned by Banias, they are the proprietors of the village, which has a total area of 1,328 acres and is assessed at Rs. 2,798. In Kainjri there is a middle vernacular school, as well as a lower primary school and an aided school for girls.

KAKWAN, *Tahsil* BILHAUR.

A large village standing in $26^{\circ} 43' N.$ and $80^{\circ} 0' E.$, on the right bank of the Cawnpore branch canal, which is here crossed by the unmetalled road from Bilhaur to Rasulabad, at a distance of eight miles south-west from the former and 32 miles from Cawnpore. There is an inspection bungalow close to the canal bridge, and in the village is a police station, a post-office, a cattle-pound and an upper primary school; markets are held twice a week, but the trade is not important, though a certain amount of fuel and other goods is exported by the canal to Cawnpore. The population in 1847 numbered 1,425 persons, but by 1872 had risen to 2,081, while in 1891 it was 2,204 and at the last census 2,223, of whom 278 were Musalmans. The chief Hindu castes are Gaharwar Rajputs, Brahmans and Chamars. The two first are a somewhat impoverished and quarrelsome lot, and together with Kayasths and Banias are the owners of the village, which has a total area of 2,390 acres and is assessed at Rs. 3,670.

KALYANPUR, *Tahsil* CAWNPORE.

There are two villages of Kalyanpur, distinguished as Kalan and Khurd, lying in $26^{\circ} 29' N.$ and $80^{\circ} 15' E.$, on the grand trunk road some five miles north-west from the city. Parallel to the road runs the Cawnpore-Achhnera Railway, but the station of Kalyanpur lies actually in the village of Bairi

Akbarpur, a short distance to the west. A metalled road takes off the main highway near the railway station and leads to Bithur, while from the village of Kalyanpur an unmetalled road goes to Maswanpur and Panki. The place is noteworthy as possessing a police station, a post-office, a cattle-pound and a thriving bazar in which markets are held twice weekly. The population of the two villages was 1,093 at the last census, including 67 Musalmans and considerable bodies of Brahmans and of Kachhwaha and other Rajputs. Kalyanpur Kalan has an area of 404 acres, assessed at Rs. 835, and is held by Chandel, Chauhan and Gautam Rajputs and Kayasths; while Kalyanpur Khurd, 134 acres in extent and assessed at Rs. 250, is the property of Chandels, Chauhans, Kachhwahas, Brahmans and Khattris.

KASHIPUR, *Tahsil* SHEORAJPUR.

An immense agricultural village in the extreme west of the tahsil, standing in 26° 35' N. and 79° 57' E., on the south side of the unmetalled road from Sheoli to Derapur, at a distance of six miles south-west from the former, 15 miles from the tahsil headquarters and 28 miles from Cawnpore. The population in 1847 was 3,746, but by 1865 it had risen to 5,156, though it dropped to 4,662 in 1872 and to 4,471 in 1891, while at the last census it was 4,426, including 173 Musalmans and a very large body of Gaur Rajputs. The latter own the bulk of the area, which amounts in all to 6,124 acres, of which about 3,945 are cultivated; small portions are held by Brahmans and Bhats. The total revenue demand is Rs. 10,550, and is paid on a single *mahal* divided into four *thoks*. The village possesses an upper primary school, an aided school for girls and a post-office. In 1868 Kashipur acquired a passing notoriety on account of a case of *sati*, the widow of a Gaur immolating herself on her husband's pyre.

KATHARA, *Tahsil* CAWNPORE.

A very large agricultural village standing in 26° 18' N. and 80° 13' E., some two miles north of the metalled road to Ghatampur and 16 miles from Cawnpore, on the left bank of a small drainage channel known as the Kharao, which falls into the Rind. The area is no less than 5,907 acres, but there is

much barren land in the neighbourhood and only 2,525 acres are cultivated. The population numbered 2,009 in 1847, but had risen to 3,571 by 1872, though it has since decreased, the total in 1891 being 3,048 and at the last census 3,031, of whom 109 were Musalmans. The place possesses a post-office and an upper primary school; markets are held twice a week here, but the trade is purely local. The owners are Brahmans, Bantias, and Rajputs of the Chandel, Gaur, Chauhan and Bhadauria clans: the revenue demand is Rs. 5,890.

KHAMAILA, *Tahsil* DERAPUR.

A large agricultural village standing in 26° 34' N. and 79° 47' E., on the right bank of the Etawah branch canal, adjoining Jhinhak on the east; it is two miles from the Jhinhak station and about ten miles north from Derapur. The place is an old Gaur settlement, but the proprietary right has long passed out of the hands of this clan, and the lands are now owned by Brahmans: they are divided into 16 *mahals* and have a total area of 2,712 acres. About 1,710 acres are under cultivation, and irrigation is obtained from the Jhinhak and right Juria distributaries; the revenue demand is Rs. 4,124. Before the construction of the railway Khamaila was a market of some importance, but the trade has gone to Jhinhak. The population in 1847 was 1,894, but it has since increased, reaching 2,379 in 1891 and at the last census 2,426, of whom 105 were Musalmans; nearly half the inhabitants are Brahmans. There is a small school in the village, but nothing else deserving mention.

KHANPUR DILWALI, *Pargana* DERAPUR.

A large agricultural village standing in 26° 29' N. and 79° 42' E., on the unmetalled road from Derapur to Mangalpur, some seven miles north-west from the former and two miles from the latter place. It is chiefly noticeable as being the residence of a well-known family of Gaur Rajputs, of whom the present representative is Thakur Ganga Singh. The population has risen rapidly during the past fifty years, for whereas it was but 951 in 1847, it had risen to 2,643 in 1897 and at the last census numbered 2,807 souls, of whom 309 were Musalmans. The area of the village is 1,161 acres, of

which 880 are under tillage, and the revenue demand is Rs. 2,990; the lands are watered by the Mangalpur and Raza-pur distributaries of the canal. There are five *mahals* of which four are in the possession of the Gaurs and the last is owned by Baniyas. The village contains a post-office, an upper primary school and an aided school for girls, as well as a small bazar in which markets are held twice a week.

KHWAJA PHUL, *Tahsil* BHOGNIPUR.

A village in the extreme north-west of the tahsil, standing on the old Mughal road in 26° 24' N. and 79° 35' E., about a mile from the Etawah boundary, four miles from Sikandra and 48 miles from Cawnpore. It is remarkable rather for its antiquities and historical associations than for its size, since the population, which in 1872 numbered 1,568, had fallen by 1901 to 1,292 persons, including 155 Musalmans. There are large communities of Gaur Rajputs and Kurmis, who own the village lands in conjunction with Baniyas and Brahmans. The total area is 1,263 acres, of which some 930 are cultivated, and the revenue is Rs. 1,325. Irrigation is obtained from the Khwaja Phul distributary of the Bhognipur canal. In the village is an aided primary school and a bazar, in which markets are held twice a week.

The name is said to be derived from one Khwaja Sarai Itimad Khan, a eunuch of the palace of Akbar, who built here a fort as a protection against the robbers who then infested the ravines of the Jumna to the constant menace of travellers along the highway. The man's original name was Phul Malik, and he received the title of Muhammad Khan from the prince Salim and afterwards that of Itimad Khan from Akbar. He was one of the emperor's confidential advisers and built Itimadpur near Agra, where he is said to have been buried.* The local tradition, however, states that he lived in the reign of Shahjahan and, by calling the place Itimadnagar, incurred the anger of his royal mistress, the princess Phul, in whose honour the appellation was changed. It further goes on to say that he built here a mausoleum and was buried in it, either alive or after committing suicide. This story is clearly

* *Ain-i-Akbari* (Blochmann), I, pp. 13,428.

an invention, but it is curious that his tomb should still be pointed out as an object of veneration to both Hindus and Musalmans. The fort was built of red sandstone, but the outer slabs were carried off to Lucknow by Asaf-ud-daula. It was repaired and surrounded with an entrenchment by the Marathas, but was dismantled after the Mutiny. The portion of the village standing within the circuit of the fort is known as Bhitarkot, in contradistinction to Baharkot to the south, where the Kurmis reside. The same Khwaja Itimad Khan probably is responsible for the *sarai* which is still used by travellers.

KISHIAURA, *Tahsil* DERAPUR.

A large agricultural village in the north of the tahsil, standing in $26^{\circ} 37'$ N. and $79^{\circ} 47'$ E., on the south side of the road from Sikandra to Rasulabad, at a distance of three miles north-east from Jhinhak and 14 miles from Derapur. Apart from its size it is of no importance. The area is 2,842 acres, of which some 1,590 are cultivated, and the revenue demand is Rs. 3,900 : the owner is the Subadar Sahib of Bithur. The population numbered 1,468 in 1847, but has since increased rapidly : it was 2,051 in 1891 and at the last census 2,439, of whom 205 were Musalmans. The place possesses a small school, but nothing of any interest.

KURIAN, *Tahsil* GHATAMPUR.

A very large village stading in $26^{\circ} 5'$ N. and $80^{\circ} 13'$ E., on west side of the unmetalled road from Bhadeona to Baripal, some eight miles south-east from Ghatampur and 29 miles from the district headquarters. It possesses a lower primary school, but is remarkable only for its size and the number of its inhabitants. The village lands are wanted by the Paras distributary, close to which stands the Taga inspection bungalow, and are 4,218 acres in extent, 2,975 acres being under cultivation : they are assessed to a revenue of Rs. 5,400 and are owned by Brahmans and Kurmis. The population of Kurian was 2,422 in 1847, rising to 3,037 in 1872 : by 1891 it had fallen to 2,594, but at the last census the total was 3,089, of whom 166 were Musalmans, the bulk of the inhabitants belonging to the same castes as the proprietors.

MAHARAJPUR, *Tahsil* NARWAL.

A considerable village standing in $26^{\circ} 18' \text{ N.}$ and $80^{\circ} 29' \text{ E.}$, on the grand trunk road at a distance of 13 miles south-east from Cawnpore and seven miles from Narwal, with which it is connected by a metalled road leading past the Sirsaul railway station, about two miles distant. Unmetalled roads lead north to Jajmau and south-east to Najafgarh, the latter being at one time metalled. The village contains a police station, a post-office, an inspection bungalow, an encamping-ground with a storehouse attached, a cattle-pound and a lower primary school; there is a roadside bazar where markets are held twice a week. The population in 1847 numbered 2,166, and in 1872 was 2,265; it was 2,224 in 1891, but at the last census had fallen to 1,879, of whom 79 were Musalmans. The place is an old Bais settlement and is still owned by members of that clan, though a portion has been acquired by Khattris. The area is 2,680 acres of which some 1,810 are cultivated, and the revenue demand is Rs. 4,555.

MAJHAWAN, *Tahsil* CAWNPORE.

A large village near the southern borders of the tahsil, standing in $26^{\circ} 18' \text{ N.}$ and $80^{\circ} 19' \text{ E.}$, on the unmetalled road from Sachendi to Sarh, at a distance of thirteen miles south from Cawnpore. In former days it gave its name to a pargana, which was amalgamated with Jajmau and Sarh Salempur, and the Chaudhris of Majhawan were the Dhanjei Brahmans of the place, whose descendants are still in possession of the village lands. These have an area of 1,664 acres, of which 810 are cultivated, and are assessed at Rs. 2,760: they are watered by two small distributaries of the Fatehpur branch canal. Majhawan possesses a post-office, an upper primary school and a bazar in which markets are held **twice** a week. The population numbered 2,878 in 1847, but has since declined, the total being 2,620 in 1872 and 2,424 in 1891 while at the last census it was 2,322, of whom 624 were Musalmans and included a number of weavers.

MAKANPUR, *Tahsil* BILHAUR.

The celebrated village of Makanpur stands in $26^{\circ} 52' \text{ N.}$ and $80^{\circ} 1' \text{ E.}$, on the right bank of the Isan in the extreme

north of the **tahsil**, at a distance of two miles from the Farukhabad boundary, eight miles north-west from Bilhaur and forty miles from Cawnpore. It is connected with the Araul railway station by a metalled road three and a half miles in length, and this continues in an unmetalled state to Rasulabad on the south-west while other roads lead to Bilhaur and to Thathia in the adjoining district.

The place is said to derive its name from a *rakhshas* called Makana Deo who was expelled by the famous Musalman saint Badi-ud-din, better known as Shah Madar, though another account states that the old name of Makanpur Paharia is derived from two of the saint's disciples, Makan Khan and Pahar Khan, in whose names the grant of land was made by Ibrahim Shah of Jaunpur. Half-way between Makanpur and Araul is an old Hindu village called Harpura, which contains so many fragments of sculpture that it seems reasonable to suspect that Makanpur itself may be an old site appropriated by the saint after the usual Musalman fashion, this theory being supported by the tradition of the *rakhshas*. It is certain at any rate that the shrine is regarded with equal veneration by both Hindus and Muhammadans. Badi-ud-din was a native of Aleppo, and according to one account a converted Jew. Popular tradition with its love for the miraculous assigns his birth to the year 1050; but at all events he did not come to India till the reign of Ibrahim Sharqi, and his settlement at Makanpur occurred either in 1413 or in 1429. The latter year is the date given for the revenue-free grant of land, but it seems clear that his death took place in 1433. His tomb was built by Ibrahim, and is a plain whitewashed building, 31½ feet square, with a low dome. The saint is believed by some to be still living, whence he had obtained the title of Zinda Pir: the story goes that the prophet Muhammad endowed him with the power of *habs-i-dam* or retention of breath, enabling him to diminish the number of respirations at pleasure. Hence the story that he refused the offer of Aurangzeb to build him a marble mausoleum on the plea that he was still alive and did not require a tomb. The shrine known as the Rauza Mubarak stands in, a courtyard about 90 feet square, called the Haram because no woman is allowed to enter, no lamps are lighted and no food is cooked. There are several other courts,

named the Sankar Darbar, from a chain on the door; the Pakarkhana, from a pakar tree growing there; the Dhamalkhana, where the *malangs* or mad Faqirs are allowed to play and sing songs; and the Nakar-khana, built by Raja Bhagmal Jat of Bithur, where are kept the great kettledrum and the gigantic metal cooking-pots which are filled at the expense of pious pilgrims on the anniversary of the saint's death. There are two large gateways to the shrine, one bearing the date 1466, and the other the Saudagar Darwaza, built in 1491 by one Muhammad Nizam. The mosque was built by Aurangzeb, who is said to have crawled up to the shrine on his elbows and knees. A second mosque was erected by Daulat Khan in 1610.*

There are many other tombs in the vicinity of the shrine, but the most famous of Shah Madar's disciples was buried at Mawar, where the Kalpi road crosses the Sengar. This was Hazrat Mutaahir, whose tomb is still revered: for its upkeep a grant of land was given in revenue-free tenure, but this was resumed and lightly assessed in 1840.

The great fair held at Makanpur in honour of Shah Madar during the month of Magh has already been mentioned in chapter II, and needs no further account. A second gathering, known as the Urs Shah Madar, takes place in the Muhammadan month of Jumad-ul-awwal, on the anniversary of the saint's death. The proceeds of the offerings and the tax levied on pilgrims, after defraying the expenses connected with the gathering, are divided between the *khadims* or guardians, who are reputed to be descendants of the saint's sister. In 1901 there were 258 of these *khadims* and their share came to about Rs. 25 apiece: they are an idle and turbulent lot, who spend their time in the interval between the fairs in begging, and wandering to all parts of India. There is also a sect of mendicants called Madarias or Majawars, who dress in black and carry peacocks' feathers.

Makanpur itself is a village of no great importance, apart from the existence of the shrine. It possesses a post-office and a lower primary school, and markets are held here twice a week. The population in 1847 numbered 2,570 souls, and this had risen to 2,802 by 1872 and to 2,868 in 1891. At the

* C. A. S. R., XI, p. 102; J. A. S. B., 1831, p. 76; E. H. I., V, p. 499.

last census the total was 2,473, of whom 1,468 were Musalmans. The area of the village is 701 acres, and the revenue demand is Rs. 835 : part of the land is still held by a numerous and impoverished body of Sheikhs, but the rest is now owned by Kayasths, Brahmans and Banias.

MANDAULI, *Tahsil* AKBARPUR.

This large agricultural village stands in 26° 29' N. and 80° 0' E., on the unmetalled road leading from Sheoli to Tigan on the road connecting Akbarpur with Rura, and close to the left bank of the Rind, at a distance of two miles from Maitha railway station, ten miles by road from Akbarpur and twenty-four miles from Cawnpore. The place boasts of a small bazar in which markets are held twice a week, the principal article of trade being the tobacco that is extensively grown in the neighbourhood. Otherwise Mandauli is important solely on account of its size and the number of its inhabitants. The population was 2,009 in 1847 and by 1901 had risen to 2,409, including 92 Musalmans. The area of the village is 2,933 acres, of which some 1,420 are cultivated, much of the land along the Rind being poor and broken. The revenue demand is Rs. 4,760, and the proprietor is Thakur Raghunath Singh, the representative of the Gaur family of Jalihapur.

MANGALPUR, *Tahsil* DERAPUR.

Mangal pur once gave its name to a pargana, from the time when 52 villages of Sikandra were bestowed in *jagir* on a nobleman named Mangal Khan, who changed the name of the place from Neora, as it had been called since its first occupation by the Gaurs : the pargana was amalgamated with Derapur in 1809. Mangalpur stands in 26° 30' N. and 79° 43' E., on the unmetalled road from Rasulabad to Sikandra and the Jumna, at a distance of four miles south-west from Jhinhak station, forty miles from Cawnpore, and nine miles north-west from Derapur, whence a road leads through the village to Phaphund in Etawah. Other roads go to Auraiya and to Sithnara on the Etawah branch canal, there joining the road from Derapur to Sheoli. The place had a population of 2,112 in 1847, and this figure remained almost stationary for a long period, as by 1872 it had risen only to 2,177 : it was 2,255

in 1891, and at the last census 2,208, including 460 Musalmans. It is now a rural market of little importance, with a police-station, a post-office, a cattle-pound, an upper primary school and a small girls' school. The *mauza* of Mangalpur is 963 acres in extent, some 765 acres of which are cultivated; irrigation is obtained from the Mangalpur distributary and several minors. The revenue demand is Rs. 2,265, and the proprietors are Brahmans and the Gaurs of Khanpur Dilwal.

MASWANPUR, *Tahsil* CAWNPORE.

Maswanpur, properly Mohsinpur, is a village standing in 26° 29' N. and 80° 17' E., to the west of Rawatpur, between the Ganges canal and Kalyanpur on the grand trunk road, at a distance of about six miles from Cawnpore. It formerly gave its name to a pargana which existed in the days of Akbar, but was afterwards absorbed in Bithur and Jajmau, and is now an unimportant agricultural village with a large population containing a considerable semi-urban element. The number of inhabitants has risen with the growth of Cawnpore: from 1,461 in 1847 it had increased to 3,477 in 1872, though it subsequently dropped to 3,220 in 1891 and at the last census to 2,748, of whom 211 were Musalmans. The place possesses an upper primary school, a post-office and a bazar in which markets are held twice a week. The area is 1,522 acres, divided into nine *mahals*, at present owned by Chandels, Musalmans, Brahmans, Baniyas and Kayasths: the revenue demand is Rs. 3,156. The village together with Rawatpur and Kakadeo has been brought under the operations of section 34 of Act V of 1861.

MUSANAGAR, *Tahsil* BHOGNIPUR

The small town of Musanagar stands in the extreme south-east of the tahsil in 80° 10' N. and 79° 58' E., and is built on the high ground above the Jumna. Through it runs the old Mughal road from Kora to Agra, crossing the Sengar by a fine masonry bridge about two miles to the west, just above its confluence with the Jumna. Other roads lead to Gajner and Mohana. The distance of the town from Pukhrayan is about nine and from Cawnpore 34 miles. Almost adjoining Musanagar on the east is Ghausganj, which is united with the former

for the purposes of Act XX of 1856. The combined population was 5,204 in 1847, and this had risen to 6,416 in 1872, but since that time there has been a great decline, the total dropping to 4,611 in 1881 and to 4,109 ten years later. In 1901 the number of inhabitants was 3,991, of whom 722 were Musalmans, Ghausganj alone containing 2,416 souls.

Musanagar is a place of undoubted antiquity. The oldest building is the temple of Mukta Devi, said to have been built in the *Treta-yug* by one Raja Bal: it is of a very early Hindu type, and bears some resemblance to the pre-Musalmán portions of the mosque at Jaunpur and Etawah. There is also an ancient tank, called the Deojani, ascribed to the wife of Raja Tijat of Jajmau. Near this tank is the old fort of Umargarh, said to have been built by Kuber Sahi, the first Panwar settler, in 1504 Sambat. A second fort was erected by Azim, the son of Aurangzeb, and named Azimgarh, but it is not known how the place came by its name of Musanagar. In the days of the Marathas the old temple was restored and several additions made by Gangadhar, the family priest of the Peshwas, while the surrounding buildings have been erected at later dates. At the cession Musanagar gave its name to the pargana in conjunction with Bhognipur, but it is not clear that it ever was the capital of a separate fiscal subdivision. Ghausganj is a place of comparatively recent origin, having been built during the days of Pathan supremacy, perhaps when Shamsher Khan was in charge of Musanagar.

The importance of the town as a commercial centre in former days was due to the fact that it was the only place of any size on the north bank of the Jumna between Etawah and Allahabad. It was thus the natural outlet for the trade of Bundelkhand with the Doab and Oudh, and became especially noted for its practical monopoly of *al* and other dyes. This accounted for the establishment in Musanagar of a large weaving printing and dyeing industry, which remained in existence till the comparatively recent decline in the demand for *al*, due to the competition of aniline and other imported dyes. The decay of the town has been further hastened by the diversion of trade caused by the construction of the metalled road and subsequently of the railway from Kalpi. At the present time Musanagar-Ghausganj is merely a market town

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of little note, and the gatherings held in the bazar twice a week are only of local significance. The place possesses a police station, a post-office, a cattle-pound and an upper primary school.

The *manza* of Musanagar is 309 acres in extent and is assessed at Rs. 153, the proprietors being Banias and Musalmans. The former are the owners of Ghausganj, which has an area of 285 acres, paying a revenue of Rs. 100 : in either case there is little cultivation, as the land is broken in every direction by the Jumna ravines. The provisions of the Village Sanitation Act, 1892, have been extended to the combined sites of Musanagar and Ghausganj, and the two were united for the purposes of Act XX of 1856 in 1885, which had been in force in the former since 1861. In 1908 there were 1,232 houses within the town area of 109 acres, and of these 453 were assessed in that and the two preceding years, the average income from the house-tax being Re. 670, with an incidence of Re. 1-7-8 per house and Re. 0-2-8 per head of population. Including the initial balance, the annual total receipts were Rs. 805, and the average expenditure for the same period was Rs. 695, the principal items being Rs. 372 for the maintenance of the *chaukidari* force, Rs. 180 for a staff of sweepers and Rs. 100 for miscellaneous local improvements.

NAJAFGARH, *Tahsil* NARWAL.

Najafgarh, officially styled Biposi Najafgarh, is a small and decayed town standing in 26° 17' N. and 80° 34' E. on the high bank of the Ganges, some sixteen miles below Cawnpore and nine miles from Narwal. Unmetalled roads lead to Cawnpore, Maharajpur, Narwal and Karbigwan station : that to Maharajpur was once metalled, but it is no longer kept up. The name is derived from Nawab Najaf Khan, on whom the village was bestowed in 1766 by Shah Alam. He held the place in revenue-free tenure, but the grant was resumed from his descendants in 1837. He built the bazar and the fort; but the person mainly responsible for the rise of the place was General Claude Martin of Lucknow celebrity, who leased the village and established here a large indigo factory, building 48 wells and 330 vats on the estate.

He was also responsible for the addition of a pair of large gateways to the town, which became a thriving market and the centre of a large export trade, for a time threatening to eclipse Cawnpore. It was particularly celebrated for indigo seed, but the place shared in the general collapse of the trade, and Mr. Vincent, the General's successor, became heavily indebted, with the result that eventually the factory and gardens were sold to a Bania of Hathras. Indigo is no longer grown, and Najafgarh is in the last stage of decay. Part of the village has been recently purchased by Messrs. Allen Brothers and Company of Cawnpore, who have established here an aloe farm here. The rest is owned by Brahmans and Gautams: the total area is 876 acres, and the revenue demand Rs. 750.

In 1847 Najafgarh contained a population of 3,799 souls, but this had fallen to 2,459 by 1872, while in 1891 it was but 1,394 and at the last census only 1,168 of whom 132 were Musalmans. The operations of Act XX of 1856 were extended to the town in 1873, but were withdrawn after ten years. The place possesses a post-office and a lower primary school: markets are held twice a week in the bazar.

NANAMAU, *Tahsil* BILHAUR.

The old village of Nanamau stands on the bank of the Ganges, in $26^{\circ} 52'$ N. and $80^{\circ} 7'$ E., at a distance of four miles north-east from Bilhaur, with which it is connected by an unmetalled road continuing to Kakwan and Rasulabad. There is a ferry over the river leading to Bangarmau in the Unao district, and the crossing is still of some importance, while in former days it was largely used, lying on the direct route from Lucknow to Farrukhabad. The place was in the days of Akbar the capital of a pargana, amalgamated by Almas Ali Khan with Bilhaur, but is now of little note. The population in 1847 was 988 and has increased but little, for in 1901 it numbered 1,042 souls, of whom 57 were Musalmans. The village includes in its 2,266 acres a large extent of alluvial land spreading out to the south, and only about 980 acres are cultivated: the revenue demand is Rs. 1,420, and the four *mahals* are owned by Ujjaini Rajputs, Kurmis, Brahmans and Sheikhs.

NARWAL, *Tahsil* NARWAL.

The small town of Narwal, which has been the headquarters of the tahsil since 1843, stands in 26° 14' N. and 80° 26' E., at a distance of eighteen miles south from Cawnpore and six miles from Sirsaul station, with which it is connected by a metalled road. Other roads lead to Chakeri on the north, to Najafgarh on the east, to Karbigwan station on the south-east, to Bindki on the south-west and to Sarh on the west. It was selected as the seat of a tahsildar owing to its central situation and for the same reason it has become a market of some local importance, though the trade is not great. In the north of the town is a settlement of weavers and dyers who have been established there for many generations. Narwal about a hundred years ago became the seat of a Chauhan Raja, who represented a branch of the Ramaipur family, but the title has long been dropped and the estate has almost disappeared. At the present time the Chauhans own a portion of the *manza* of Narwal, sharing the 1,109 acres with Bais Brahmans and Kalwars: the revenue demand is Rs. 2,997.

The population in 1847 numbered 2,293 souls, and this had risen by 1872 to 2,514, while in 1881 it was 2,520; it has since declined, falling to 2,469 in 1891 and at the last census to 2,214, of whom 278 were Musalmans. The place possesses, in addition to the tahsil buildings, a police station, a registration office, a post-office, a cattle-pound and an inspection bungalow: markets are held twice a week. The educational institutions comprise a middle vernacular school, a lower primary school and an aided school for girls.

The enactments specially extended to the town include Act XX of 1856, the Village Sanitation Act, 1892, and section 34 of Act V of 1861; but the first of these was withdrawn in 1909. In 1907 the *chaukidari* area of 89 acres contained 545 houses, and in that and the two preceding years the average number assessed to taxation was 234, the house-tax yielding Rs. 328 annually, with an incidence of Re. 1-6-7 per house and Re. 0-2-6 per head of the total population, these being the lowest rates for a town in the district. The total income, including the initial balance, averaged Rs. 386 and the yearly expenditure for the same period was Rs. 341, the main items being Rs. 162 for the upkeep of the town *chaukidars*,

Rs. 108 for a staff of public sweepers and Rs. 44 for minor local improvements.

NARWAL Tahsil.

The pargana and tahsil of Narwal, formerly known as Sarh-Salempur, is the easternmost subdivision of the district, marching on the south and east with Fatehpur and on the north-east and north with Unao, the dividing line in the latter case being the deep stream of the Ganges. To the west and north-west lies the Cawnpore tahsil and to the south-west is Ghatampur, the boundary in either case being purely conventional. The total area is liable to vary to a slight extent owing to the action of the Ganges, and for the five years ending in 1907 amounted to 134,678 acres or 210·4 square miles.

In the days of Akbar the area was included in the parganas of Jajmau, Majhawan and Kora, and the existing subdivision is of comparatively recent origin. At the cession in 1801, in addition to these three parganas, there had come into existence those of Sarh, Salempur and Domanpur, and no change was made till 1807, when Majhawan and Domanpur were abolished and absorbed in Jajmau and Salempur, respectively. The next great alteration took place at the first regular settlement, when 15 villages of Sarh were transferred to Kora, 66 to Ghatampur and three to Jajmau, while in return the Sarh and Salempur parganas, henceforward united into a single area, received 81 villages from Jajmau, eight from Kora and two from Bithur, making a total of 202 villages in the reformed Sarh tahsil. The only subsequent change was the removal of the headquarters in 1843 to Narwal, that place being more conveniently situated.

The tahsil now forms a subdivision in the charge of a full-powered officer on the district staff. The tahsildar is stationed at Narwal, while the civil jurisdiction is vested in the munsif of Cawnpore. For police purposes the area is divided between the circles of Sarh, Narwal and Maharajpur; but under the new scheme the first is to be abolished and merged in Narwal, a portion of the latter being united with Maharajpur.

Means of communication are good in the north-east half, but elsewhere they are restricted to unmetalled roads. The

former is traversed by the main line of the East Indian Railway, on which are stations at Karbigwan, Sirsaal near Maharajpur, and Chakeri. Between the railway and the river runs the grand trunk road, from which a metalled branch connects Maharajpur with Sirsaal and Narwal, while another leads to the Chakeri station. With the exception of the fine broad road from Maharajpur to Sarh, the unmetalled roads are of an indifferent description and are liable to become impassable for carts after heavy rain. They are fairly numerous, as will be seen on referring to the map. From Narwal roads lead to Chakeri, to Sarh, to Karbigwan and to Najafgarh on the Ganges, this place being connected by other roads with Maharajpur and Kora. South of the Pandu river roads run from Sarh to Sachendi, to Rampur on the Jumna, and to Bindki and Kora in Fatchpur. The Ganges is crossed by ferries, for which reference may be made to the appendix. There too will be found lists showing the post-offices, schools, markets and fairs of the tahsil. None of the markets possesses more than local importance, with perhaps the exception of Barai Garhu, a village that is celebrated for the extensive culture of *gan* and has developed a large export trade in this commodity, while its cattle market is one of the best attended in the district. In former days Najafgarh became a great trade centre, and even threatened to rival Cawnpore as the focus of European enterprise; but its fortunes depended solely on indigo, and when this declined the fall of Najafgarh was rapid and complete. The markets on the grand trunk road were once far more prosperous than they now are, though their position on the railway still gives them some advantage.

The population of Narwal in 1853 numbered 109,146 souls, and successive enumerations have witnessed an almost constant decline. The total fell to 105,374 in 1865 and to 99,303 in 1872; and though it rose to 101,830 in 1881, it had relapsed ten years later to 98,784 and in 1901 it was only 92,860, of whom 44,951 were females. Classified by religions there were 89,113 Hindus, 3,735 Musalmans, 11 Aryas and one Sikh. The principal Hindu castes are Brahmans, who numbered 15,545; Ahirs, 14,204; Rajputs, 10,271; Chamars, 7,420; Kachhis, 5,400; and Baurias 5,099, these being more numerous than in any other part of the district. Next to these come

Gadariyas, Nais, Koris, Mallahs and Banias while a noteworthy feature is the comparative scarcity of Kurmis, who are so strong in the adjoining tahsil of Ghatampur. The Rajputs belong to many clans, but the chief are the Gautams, who formerly held Salempur, and the Bais, whose possessions were in Sarh to the south. The third place is taken by the Chauhans, who obtained the Narwal *taluqa* before the cession; while others are Parihars, Kachhwahas, Bhadaurias, Rathors and Chandels. The Musalmans are mainly Sheikhs, Behnas, Faqirs and Pathans, with a few Manihars, Julahas and others. The tahsil is almost wholly agricultural, and the census returns show that over 66 per cent. of the population depends solely on cultivation for a means of subsistence, while an additional 8·7 per cent. comes under the head of general labour. Personal service and the supply of food and drink make up 12 per cent., and the only industrial occupations worthy of mention are weaving and oil-pressing.

In its physical aspects the tahsil exhibits considerable diversity of appearance in the different tracts. In the southwest the determining feature is the Rind, which flows in a tortuous course through the tahsil, at a distance ranging from two to four miles from the Ghatampur border; it is nowhere bridged, and during the rains it constitutes an impassable barrier to traffic. The banks of the river rather resemble those in Fatehpur than in the upper part of its course; for on either side is a belt of *behar*, as it is called, consisting of scrub jungle and arid soil, cut up in every direction by deep precipitous ravines, the sides of which are often sheer cliffs of *kankar*. There is little, if any, cultivation in this belt, which is practically barren, but on both flanks, reaching up to its very edge, is a level stretch of continuous tillage, the soil being of the red variety that is everywhere characteristic of the Rind valley. Further north this soil passes gradually into a sandy loam, growing stiffer near Sarh, in the neighbourhood of which is a good deal of *usar*. This tract is watered by the Fatehpur branch canal, the construction of which has conferred a great benefit on the pargana. Then comes the valley of the Pandu, which crosses the tahsil in a serpentine course, keeping nearly parallel to the Ganges till it reaches the Fatehpur border; but after making a short excursion into that district, it doubles

back to form the tahsil boundary to within three miles of its junction with the Ganges. The Pandu is here bordered with undulating country that becomes more marked after passing Narwal, and eventually develops into stretches of mingled sand, *usar* and waste broken by ravines, of no agricultural value. The northern half of the tahsil, between the Pandu and the Ganges, is a fairly level tract with a grey loam soil of average quality, degenerating into sand towards the rivers, while in every direction *usar* is abundant, and in places the surface water collects in large depressions, the chief of which are the *jhils* at Tilsahri, Saibasi, Rahnas and Phuphuar. The drainage is imperfectly carried off from the last by a water-course called the Paghaiya, which joins the Pandu near the Fatehpur boundary; and further east is another streamlet, known as the Bhonri, which falls into the same river. The tract is irrigated by the Haluakhada distributary of the Ganges canal, tailing into the Pandu near Purwa Mir. The last subdivision of the tahsil is the high cliff of the Ganges, a mixture of ravines and undulating ground with a few flat patches, the soil being generally a reddish, gritty *blur* that rapidly cakes into a hard though brittle surface when out of cultivation: there is much *usar* and *kankar*, means of irrigation are deficient owing to the absence of canals and the difficulty of constructing wells, and the village sites are usually perched on the high bank, where the soil is of the poorest description. Below the cliff there is merely a narrow strip of sand, and the area of alluvial cultivation is very small except in Domanpur, where is a large island cut off from the mainland by a deep channel.

The standard of development attained in Narwal is much the same as that of other parts of the district. As elsewhere, a marked decline has been observed in the cultivated area during the past thirty years, and the present figure is below that recorded at the first regular settlement in 1840. It then amounted to 75,201 acres or 57·2 per cent. of the whole area, according to the survey of that time. At the following settlement a considerable increase was found to have occurred, the area under tillage being 79,027 acres or 57·7 per cent. the total area being much larger than before. About 1885 symptoms of deterioration first became visible, and the

inferior lands began to drop out of cultivation; and this process continued till the end of the century, since which time there has been a slow but steady improvement. The average area under the plough during the five years ending with 1906 was 74,292 acres or 55.16 per cent. of the whole, this being almost identical with the general proportion for the district. On the other hand the area double-cropped is less than in any other pargana, averaging only 5,893 acres or 7.93 per cent. of the net cultivation. The amount of barren land is large, as much as 32,929 acres or 24.45 per cent. being thus described, though this includes 3,568 acres under water and 9,709 acres permanently occupied by railways, roads, sites and the like; the rest is *usar*, sand or ravines, which could never be brought under tillage. The so called culturable area, 27,458 acres in all, comprises 6,556 acres of groves, the pargana being exceptionally well wooded, and 1,776 acres of current fallow; two-thirds of the remainder is classed as old fallow, and probably much of it could be reclaimed though often it is little better than barren waste, and its arable qualities are of the poorest. Means of irrigation are fairly plentiful, and on an average 34.46 per cent. of the cultivated area obtains water. There has been a marked improvement in this respect of late years, owing principally to the extension of the canal system. Till recently the only canal supply was that afforded by the Haluakhada distributary, which traverses the country between the Ganges and the Pandu; but the construction of the Fatehpur branch has greatly benefited the land between the Pandu and the Rind, while the Bhelsa and other minors of the Ghatampur branch reach a number of villages in the extreme west. Out of 25,600 acres irrigated annually, 9,204 are supplied by canals, and on occasion this can be materially increased. Wells still irrigate 58.25 and other sources 5.79 per cent., though the latter are very precarious and liable to fail when most required. The wells are mainly of the unmortared brick type, which prove very enduring, and the subsoil is usually firm enough to permit unprotected wells to last for several years. Doubtless the new canals have to some extent affected their stability, and in many cases old earthen wells have been given a brick lining, a fact which in large measure accounts for the remarkable

apparent increase in the number of brick wells, of which there were 1,604 at the last as compared with 721 at the preceding settlement. Masonry wells are rare and are considered a needless luxury, those that exist being seldom used for irrigation.

The two harvests are approximately equal in extent, their relative position depending on the character of the season; on an average the *rabi* covers 39,694 and the *kharif* 40,139 acres. The double-cropped area amounts to 5,893 or 7.93 per cent. of the net cultivation, and though the proportion is the lowest in the district, the total shows a marked increase when compared with the 2,300 acres recorded in 1870. The chief *rabi* staples are barley and gram, which together occupy 61.21 per cent. of the area sown, barley by itself being of little importance, while gram alone makes up only 2.56 per cent. The rest consists principally in wheat, which by itself covers 2.71, and when mixed with barley or gram 31.57 per cent. Other crops include poppy, averaging 234 acres, tobacco and garden produce. In the *kharif* 54.34 per cent. of the area is taken up by *juar* and *arhar* in combination, and next come cotton and *arhar* with 21.53, *bajra* and *arhar* with 5.77, rice with 5.08, and maize with 4.74 per cent. Sugarcane averages 1,068 acres, but of late has shown a marked improvement; but indigo, once the most valuable product of the tahsil, has practically disappeared. There is a good deal of garden cultivation, notably in the case of sweet potatoes and *pan*, for which Barai Garhu has long been famous.

At the recent settlement the total area included in holdings was 77,402 acres, and of this 8.5 per cent. was cultivated by proprietors, 61.9 by occupancy tenants and 26.7 by tenants-at-will, the remaining 2.9 per cent. being rent-free. The occupancy area is large, but none the less shows a considerable decrease during the past thirty years, while the decline in proprietary cultivation indicates the extensive transfers which have recently taken place. The average cash rental is Rs. 5.55 per acre, tenants-at-will paying Rs. 5.73 and those with rights of occupancy Rs. 5.48. As everywhere, there has been a general increase in the past thirty years, but not to the same extent as in other parganas, the former rates for

the two classes being Rs. 5·21 and Rs. 4·97, respectively. Of the various cultivating castes Brahmans and Rajputs largely preponderate, holding 25·4 and 24·05 per cent. of the cash-rented area, and paying Rs. 5·08 and Rs. 4·74 per acre, respectively. Next follow Ahirs, holding 22·2 per cent. and paying Rs. 5·24, and then Kachhis with 6 per cent. and an average rate of Rs. 7·95. Musalmans, Banias, Chamars and Lodhs constitute the bulk of the remainder.

The revenue of the pargana at successive settlements is shown in the appendix, and in its fiscal history Narwal differs little, if at all, from the rest of the district.* Apart from the alluvial land there are 464 *mahals*, of which 138 are single and 261 joint *zamindari*, 41 are perfect and 24 imperfect *pattidari*. The old proprietors were Bais Rajputs in the east, Gautams of Argal in the centre and Jaganbansi Brahmans in the west along the Rind. They had lost over one-third of their estates by 1840, and fully two-thirds by 1870; but the chief sufferers have been the Brahmans, whose lands have passed to the Khattris of Mauranwan in Unao, the Tiwaris of Kulgaon and other money-lenders. The Rajputs retain 46 per cent. of the total area, the chief Gautam families being those of Raipur and Purwa Mir, and of the Bais those of Pali Bhogipur, Tilsahri, Hathigaon and Phuphuar.

NONARI BAHADURPUR, *Tahsil* SHEORAJPUR.

The village of Nonari Bahadurpur is generally known as Onha, which however also includes Baragaon and Jaswantpur. It lies in the old Sheoli pargana, in 26° 37' N. and 79° 58' E., in the north-west corner of the tahsil, at a distance of six miles from Sheoli and 28 miles from Cawnpore. Onha is the name of a Chandel *taluka* representing an offshoot of Sheorajpur: it originally comprised 34 villages, ten of which were held as *nankar*; but Almas Ali Khan resumed the grant, leaving only ten villages with the family, and these ten were afterwards reduced by sale to six. The three villages mentioned above are now treated as a single *mahal*, assessed at Rs. 3,796 and held by the Rawat of Onha: they have a combined area of 3,093 acres of which 1,380 are cultivated.

* Appendix table IX and X.

There is much rice land of poor quality and a great deal of *usar*, but the better portions are irrigated from the Kansua distributary. The combined population was 1,657 in 1847, and this had risen to 2,043 by 1891, and by the last census to 2,227 of whom 83 were Musalmans: the prevailing Hindu castes are Brahmans, Chandels and Lodhs. Nonari Bahadurpur contains a post-office, an upper primary school and an aided school for girls.

PADRI TALPUR, *Tahsil GHATAMPUR.*

The village is an old Musalman settlement, standing in $26^{\circ} 13' N.$ and $80^{\circ} 11' E.$ on the banks of the Rind in the north-east of the tahsil, some two miles east from the road to Ghatampur at a distance of nine miles from the latter and twenty miles from Cawnpore. It possesses post-office, an upper primary school, an aided school for girls, and a bazar in which markets are held twice a week. The population was 2,157 in 1847, and by 1891 had risen to 2,614, while at the last census it was 2,794, including a large Brahman element and 230 Musalmans. The latter are still the proprietors of the village, which assessed at Rs. 3,398: the total area is 2,616 acres, of which some 1,465 are cultivated; irrigation is obtained from the Ghatampur distributary, which passes close to the south of the site.

PANKI GANGAGANJ, *Tahsil CAWNPORE.*

Panki Gangaganj, so-called to distinguish it from the adjoining villages of Panki Bahadurnagar and Panki Bhan Singh, stands in $26^{\circ} 27' N.$ and $80^{\circ} 15' E.$, on the north side of the East Indian Railway and the metalled road to Kalpi, at a distance of seven miles west from Cawnpore. A metalled branch connects the main road with the Panki station, and an unmetalled road goes north-east from the village to Kalyanpur. It is a purely agricultural place, though it possess a small bazar, in which markets are held twice a week, with a few shops occupied by braziers and corndealers. The population in 1847 was 3,050, but has since declined: it was 2,598 in 1891 and at the last census 2,623, of whom 107 were Musalmans. The area of the village is 2,162 acres, and the revenue demand is Rs. 2,792: it is divided into two *mahals*,

both owned by Chandel Rajputs; one of them is held by Rawat Sheoratan Singh. The owner of Panki was formerly known as Raja, but the title has never been recognised by the British Government. Much of the estate originally founded by Hirde Singh, a brother of Hindu Singh of Sachendi, has been sold, but the remainder was saved on behalf of Dhijraj Singh by the intervention of the Court of Wards.

PARAS, *Tahsil* GHATAMPUR.

The village of Paras, also known as Shukrpur Paras, at one time was the capital of a separate pargana, though it appears to have been merged in Ghatampur at the time of the cession. It is now merely a large agricultural village standing in 26° 30' N. and 80° 13' E., on the road from Bhadeona to Baripal and a short distance south of its junction with the old Mughal road: it is five miles south-east from Ghatampur and about twenty-six miles from Cawnpore. Formerly the Mughal road ran through the village, as is evident from the ruins of a fine *sarai* and a cruciform market-place built, it is said, by Azam, the son of Aurangzeb. The lands of Paras are watered by the distributary of the same name, which passes through the western portion: they are 4,254 acres in extent, some 3,210 acres being cultivated, and are assessed at Rs. 5,567. The owners are a large body of resident Brahmans. The population numbered 1,837 souls in 1847 and 2,576 in 1872, while it dropped in 1891 to 2,395, but rose at the last census to 2,615 of whom only 56 were Musalmans. The village possesses a lower primary school.

PATARA, *Tahsil* GHATAMPUR.

Patara is one of the many large villages of this tahsil and stands in 26° 14' N. and 80° 12' E., on the right-hand side of the main road to Ghatampur, from which a branch here takes off to Gajner, at a distance of twenty miles from Cawnpore and about seven miles from the tahsil headquarters. It had in 1847 a population of 2,768 souls, and this rose to 3,241 in 1872 and to 3,267 in 1891, though at the last census the total had dropped to 3,083, including 73 Musalmans and a very large Brahman community. The place has a bazar of some local

importance, in which markets are held twice a week : it also possesses a post-office, an upper primary school and a small school for girls. In the month of Chait a fair of some note takes place in honour of Naghelin Devi. The village lands are 4,215 acres in extent and are watered by the Ghatampur and Bhadras distributaries : about 2,565 acres are under cultivation and the revenue is Rs. 5,526. There are 18 *mahals*, and the proprietors are Gaur Rajputs of the Khanpur Dilwal family, Brahmans and Banias.

PUKHRAYAN, *Tahsil* BHOGNIPUR.

A rising town, which in 1894 became the headquarters of the Bhognipur tahsil, standing in $26^{\circ} 13' N.$ and $79^{\circ} 50' E.$, on the north side of the metalled road to Kalpi, at a distance of 39 miles south-west from Cawnpore. Parallel to the road on the south runs the Indian Midland Railway, with a station close to the site. Unmetalled roads lead to Derapur on the north, with branches to Akbarpur and Sikandra, and on the south to Chaparghata on the Mughal road and to Deorahat on the Jumna.

In addition to the tahsil buildings Pukhrayan contains a police station, a registration-office, a cattle-pound, a post-office and a dispensary, opened in 1894. There is a middle vernacular school, as well as a large primary school and an aided school for girls. The market is of considerable importance, as the place by reason of its favourable situation has attracted most of the trade from Musanagar, Amrodha and other old bazars in the neighbourhood. The population has increased rapidly of late years. In 1847 Pukhrayan was a small market town with 1,546 inhabitants : and this figure had risen to 2,077 by 1891, while at the last census it was 2,575, including 175 Musalmans and a large Bania community. The village lands are 1,484 acres in extent, assessed at Rs. 1,650 and are held in four *mahals* by Brahmans and Banias.*

PURA, *Tahsil* BILHAUR.

The village of Pura stands in $26^{\circ} 44' N.$ and $80^{\circ} 6' E.$, occupying the space between the grand trunk road and the

Cawnpore-Achhnera Railway, on which there is a station adjoining the main site, at a distance of some nine miles south from Bilhaur and twenty-five miles from the district headquarters. To the east of the railway flows the Sheorajpur distributary of the Cawnpore branch canal, and on this is an inspection bungalow. On the main road is an encamping ground, and in the village is a post-office and an upper primary school. The bazar is of some importance, and consists of a row of shops along the road : there are no regular market days. The population in 1847 numbered 2,078, and has since remained stationary : it was 2,027 in 1891 and at the last census 2,122 including 147 Musalmans and a large community of Brahmans. The latter own the village, save for a share held by a Kalwar : the area is 1,177 acres, of which some 800 are cultivated, and the revenue is Rs. 3,397.

RASDHAN, *Tahsil* BHOGNIPUR.

A small and somewhat decayed town standing in 26° 21' N. and 79° 42' E., on the south side of the road from Sikandra to Derapur, from which a branch leads south-east to Pukhrayan, a distance of about fifteen miles : it is forty-two miles west from Cawnpore and sixteen miles from Akbarpur. Nothing is known of its history till it became in 1804 the residence of the heirs of Himmatt Bahadur, in whose possession the Sikandra pargana remained till 1840. In 1847 Rasdhan was an important market with a large trade in ghi, kusum and other articles, but at the present time its commercial importance is small, though markets are held twice a week; and the decline of the place is shown by the withdrawal in 1896 of the provisions of Act XX of 1856, which had been in force since 1861. The population in 1847 numbered 3,591 persons; but this had fallen to 3,367 by 1872, while in 1881 it was 3,146 and ten years later 2,776. The census of 1901 showed some improvement, the total then being 3,071, of whom 375 were Musalmans. The place possesses a post-office, a cattle-pound and an upper primary school. The village lands extend over 2,319 acres of which some 1,755 are cultivated, irrigation being obtained from the Rasdhan and Salahra distributaries of Bhognipur tahsil. The revenue demand is Rs. 3,700 and the owners are Goshains, Brahmans, Khattris and Banias.

RASULABAD, *Tahsil* BILHAUR.

The place which till 1894 gave its name to the pargana and tahsil of Rasulabad, in that year divided between Bilhaur and Derapur, is little more than a mere agricultural village standing in $26^{\circ} 40'$ N. and $79^{\circ} 48'$ E., in the western extremity of the Bilhaur tahsil, at a distance of eleven miles north from Jhinhak station, twenty-two miles south-west from Bilhaur and about forty miles north-west from Cawnpore. From it several unmetalled road radiate, leading to Jhinhak and Sikandra, to Bilhaur and Nanaman, to Makanpur and Ankin, to Shēoli and Cawnpore, to Rura and Akbarpur, to Bidhuna in Etawah on the north-west and to Phaphund on the west.

The name is derived from one Rasul Khan, an otherwise unknown governor of the Mughal period. In the days of Akbar the pargana was known as Malkusah or Malgosa, which was possibly identical with Rasulabad, though the old name may perhaps be found in Malkampurwa near Kainjri. Between 1756 and 1762 it was occupied on behalf of the Marathas by Gobind Rao Pandit, who rebuilt the mud fort, in which the tahsil buildings were located. The latter are now utilised as quarters for the police, while the *thana* is a new building well situated on the fort mound. The original construction of the fort is attributed to one Amandas, a Gahlot and the ancestor of the principal Rajput family of the place. In addition to the police station, Rasulabad possesses a post-office, a cattle-pound and an upper primary school. Markets are held twice a week in the bazar, which contains a number of shops; a few traders reside in the town, but the commercial importance of the place is small. The population numbered 3,835 in 1847 and by 1872 had risen to 4,331; but the removal of the tahsil led to a decline, and the total, which in 1891 was 4,004, had further fallen by 1901 to 3,965, of whom 687 were Musalmans. The latter with the Rajputs are the principal inhabitants, but they are generally poor and very litigious. The *manza* of Rasulabad is very large, extending over 5,148 acres, of which about 2,190 are cultivated. The revenue is Rs. 4,900, and the village forms a single co-percenary *mahals*, held by Rajputs of the Gahlot, Gaur, Chauhan, and Sengar clans, and by Musalmans and Lohars; the principal proprietor is Thakur Rajendra Bahadur Singh of Khanpur Dilwal.

RATANPUR, *Tahsil* DERAPUR.

A large village in the extreme north of the tahsil, standing on the road from Rura to Rasulabad, in $26^{\circ} 37'$ N. and $79^{\circ} 50'$ E., at a distance of thirty-six miles north-west from Cawnpore and fifteen miles north of the tahsil headquarters. To the south flows the river Rind, which is here joined by its affluent the Siyari. Ratanpur is an old Gaur village, and of its nineteen *mahals* all but two, now in the possession of Brahmans, are held by members of that clan, including Thakur Raghunath Singh of Jalihapur. The area of the whole is 2,535 acres, and the revenue demand is Rs. 3,975. Save for its size the place has no special claim to mention : it possesses an upper primary school, and twice a week a market held here. The population in 1847 was 2,025, and by 1872 this had risen to 3,126 while in 1891 it was 3,288. At the last census however it had dropped to 2,722, including 118 Musalmans and a very large proportion of Rajputs.

RAWATPUR, *Tahsil* CAWNPORE.

The large suburban village of Rawatpur stands in $26^{\circ} 29'$ N. and $80^{\circ} 17'$ E., about three miles west of Cawnpore and adjoining Kalyanpur and Maswanpur, already described. It contained in 1847 a population of 4,316 persons, though this had dropped to 3,126 by 1872; it rose to 3,438 in 1891, but at the last census was 3,133, including 326 Musalmans. Many of the inhabitants are directly or indirectly connected with the city, and the place has little trade of its own : there is a small bazar containing several shops, occupied by braziers and others, and markets are held here twice a week. The village also possesses a lower primary school. Rawatpur has an area of 717 acres, of which some 440 are cultivated, and the revenue demand is Rs. 2,084. It belongs to the Chandel estate, now administered by the Brahman priests of the Rawat, from whom the place derives its name : an account of the family has been given in chapter III. The village is united with Kakadeo on the east and Maswanpur on the west to form a single area for the purposes of section 34 of the Police Act, V of 1861.

RURA, *Tahsil* AKBARPUR.

An important village in the north-west of the tahsil standing in $26^{\circ} 29' N.$ and $79^{\circ} 54' E.$, at a distance of twenty-eight miles west from Cawnpore and eight miles north of the tahsil headquarters. With the latter it is connected by a metalled road, while a second goes south-west to Derapur. From the north of the village runs unmetalled road, and this after crossing the Etawah branch canal, which flows close to the site on the east, splits into two branches, one reading to Sheoli on the north-east and the other to Rasulabad on the north-west. Hard by the canal bridge is an inspection bungalow. To the south of the village runs the main line of the East Indian Railway and a short metalled road connects it with the station, which lies to the south-east. Owing to its favourable situation the place possesses a considerable trade, and markets are held here twice a week. The population rose from 1,345 in 1847 to 1,811 in 1872, while in 1891 it was 1,932 and at the last census 1,979, of whom 192 were Musalmans. The village contains a post-office, a cattle-pound an upper primary school, and a small school for girls. The area of the *mauza*, which is held in two *mahals* by Brahmans, is 1,127 acres, about 745 being under cultivation, and the revenue demand is Rs. 2,650.

SACHENDI, *Tahsil* CAWNPORE.

Sachendi or Chachendi is a small town standing in $26^{\circ} 25' N.$ and $80^{\circ} 10' E.$, on the south side of the metalled road to Kalpi, at a distance of thirteen miles west from Cawnpore. Through it runs an unmetalled road from Sarh to Sheoli, and to the east of the site flows the Kansua distributary of the Ganges canal. The place is said to have been founded by one of the Chandels named Chachak Deo, who assumed the title of Raja and was the ancestor of the more famous Hindu Singh, one of the leading chieftains of the district. The estate was finally confiscated for rebellion and sold by auction, the present owners being Lala Ganeshi Lal and other Khattris of Cawnpore. In spite of its size and the existence of a small market, Sachendi is a purely agricultural place of no commercial importance. The population rose from 5,217 in 1847 to 5,441

in 1853 and to 5,496 in 1865, but has since declined, the total being 4,802 in 1872 and 3,970 in 1891, while at the last census it was 3,869 of whom 343 were Musalmans and 53 Aryas. The place possesses a police station, a post-office, a cattle-pound and an upper primary school. By the side of the main road is an encamping-ground with a stone *dépôt* attached. The area of the village lands is 4,403 acres, of which 1,875 are under cultivation, and the revenue demand is Rs. 5,749. A large space is occupied by the fort of the Chandels which stands to the east of the main site. It is of irregular outline with six bastions, but is now in ruins and deserted.

SAJETI, *Tahsil* GHATAMPUR.

A village standing in 26° 3' N. and 80° 10' E., on the left side of the main road from Cawnpore to Hamirpur, at a distance of thirty-three miles from the former and about seven miles south-west from Ghatampur. The road is here crossed by that from Srnagar to Amauli in the Fatehpur district. The place deserves mention as possessing a police station, a post-office, a cattle-pound and a small bazar, in which unimportant markets are held twice a week. The population in 1901 numbered 868 souls, mainly Kurmis, who share the village with Banias and Panwar Rajputs. The area is 1,571 acres, and the revenue demand is Rs. 1,700.

SALEMPUR, *Tahsil* NARWAL.

This village gave its name to a pargana which was formed out of the old Akbari *mahals* of Majhawan and Jajmau and remained in existence till 1837, when it was amalgamated with Sarh to form a single tahsil now called Narwal. It stands in 26° 21' N. and 80° 30' E., about eleven miles south-east from Cawnpore on the road from Jajmau to Maharajpur and nine miles from Narwal. It is said to have been founded by one Salem Khan, the first Chaudhri of the new pargana: but nothing else is known of him. There was at one time a flourishing indigo industry here; but this has vanished and the village has declined, the population falling from 1,853 in 1847 to 1,421 in 1891, while at the last census it was 1,315, of whom 74 were Musalmans. There is an aided

school at Salempur, but nothing else of any interest whatever. The area of the *mauza* is 1,616 acres, extending almost to the Ganges bank, and about 385 acres are cultivated; the revenue demand is Rs. 2,060, assessed on eight *mahals* which are owned by Brahmans, Khattris and Rajputs of the Bias, Chandel and Chauhan clans.

SAPAHÍ, *Tahsil* CAWNPORE.

Sapahi, otherwise written Sapai or Sapihi, is an agricultural village standing on the left or east bank of the Rind, in $26^{\circ} 20' \text{ N.}$ and $80^{\circ} 11' \text{ E.}$, a short distance to the west of the unmetalled road from Bidhnu to Sachendi and thirteen miles south-west from Cawnpore. It is noteworthy as being the seat of one of the principal Chandel families in the district, and is still held by various members of that clan. Tradition states that the place was founded by Lag Deo, a brother of Sheoraj Deo, the first Raja of Sheorajpur. The village is now divided into six *mahals*, the whole being assessed at Rs. 2,702. The total area is 2,351 acres, but only some 940 acres are cultivated, as much of the land is poor and broken by the ravines of the river. The population numbered 1,241 in 1847 and has since undergone little change, the total in 1901 being 1,289, of whom all but were Hindus. There is a lower primary school in the village and an aided school for girls.

SARHÍ, *Tahsil* NARWAL.

The village of Sarhi, once of some importance as giving its name to a pargana, lies in $26^{\circ} 14' \text{ N.}$ and $80^{\circ} 21' \text{ E.}$, at a distance of fifteen miles south from Cawnpore and six miles west from Narwal. The main site is built on the south side of the road from Ghatampur to Salempur, which is here crossed by that from Sheoli and Sachendi to Kora, while a branch from the latter leads to Barai Garhu and there bifurcates, one road going to Narwal and the other to Bindki. To the east of the village flows the Fatehpur branch canal, and near the bridge on the Salempur road is an inspection house. The transfer of the tahsil headquarters to Narwal in 1843 led to the decline of Sarhi, which in 1847 contained a population of 1,079 inhabitants. The total had risen again to 1,933 in 1872,

but by 1891 it had dropped to 1,889 and at the last census it was 1,731, including a large number of Brahmans and 65 Musalmans. The village was originally settled by Gautam Rajputs, but is now held by Brahmans in *pattidari* tenure at a revenue of Rs. 3,157, the area being 2,587 acres of which some 1,040 are under cultivation. The place contains a police station, which will probably be abolished in the near future, a post-office, a cattle-pound and a large upper primary school.

SARWAN KHERA, *Tahsil* AKBARPUR.

The village of Sarwan Khera stands in 26° 21' N. and 80° 6' E., at a distance of two miles south-east from the Parman station on the Indian Midland Railway, ten miles east-south-east from Akbarpur and nineteen miles from Cawnpore. It is traversed by a road from Sachendi to Gajner, which is joined by a second branch from the Kalpi road, taking off at Ramia and going past the railway station. The village lands extend over 2,637 acres, and watered by the Sarwan Khera distributary of the Ghatampur canal, which flows about a mile to the east: the area under cultivation is 1,750 acres, and the revenue demand is Rs. 4,712. The place contained in 1901 a population of 2,113 persons, including 41 Musalmans and a large body of Chauhan Rajputs. The latter, who belong to the original colony of Seontha, have lost their proprietary rights, the present owners of the three *mahals* being a Brahman, a Kalwar, and Kashi Das, a Chamar of Cawnpore. Sarwan Khera possesses a post-office and a lower primary school: the bazar, known as Nauniha, is of considerable local importance and markets are held twice a week.

SHEOLI, *Tahsil* SHEORAJPUR.

The village of Sheoli formerly gave its name to a pargana, which comprised the *talukas* of Onha and Sakrej, and was amalgamated with Sheorajpur in 1861. The place is of great antiquity, and its name is attributed to the discovery of an image of Shiva by a Banjara engaged in clearing the forest. It was included in the Chandel estates, but has now passed wholly out of the hands of that clan. The place stands in 26° 36' N. and 80° 4' E., at the junction of several unmetalled

roads leading from Cawnpore, Sheorajpur, Bithur, Sachendi, Tigain and Rasulabad, the last being joined by branches from Derapur and Rura : it is ten miles south-east from Sheorajpur and twenty-two miles from the district headquarters. The village consists of four *thoks* or divisions, known as Birtiana, Tiwariana, Dhakan and Hiranman, with a total area of 4,391 acres of which 2,018 acres are cultivated : irrigation is obtained from the Sheoli branch of the Kansua distributary. The first two *thoks* are held by Brahmans, as their names imply, and the others by Brahmans and Sengar Rajputs : the revenue demand for the whole village is Rs. 6,435. The population of Sheoli rose from 4,504 in 1847 to 5,128 in 1853, but afterwards dropped to 4,179 in 1872 and to 4,010 in 1891. At the last census it was 4,287, of whom 199 were Musalmans. The place possesses a police station, a post-office, a cattle-pound, a canal inspection bungalow, an upper primary school and a school for girls; there is also a Sanskrit school maintained by Chaube Jwala Prasad, the leading *zamindar* of the place.

SHEORAJPUR, *Tahsil* SHEORAJPUR.

The capital of the pargana and tahsil of Sheorajpur stands in 26° 41' N. and 80° 9' E., on the grand trunk road some twenty-one miles north-west from Cawnpore. Parallel to the road runs the metre-gauge railway, with a station close to the main site. A cross road from Sarai Gang on the Ganges passes through the town, leading to Sheoli on the south-east. Sheorajpur is said to have been founded by Sheoraj Deo, the first of the Chandel Rajas, in 1336. He built a fort in which the family resided till its destruction after the Mutiny : there was another fort belonging to the Chandels at Radhan, a considerable village on the Ganges near Pura. The place contains no ancient remains, though in the adjoining village of Chhatarpur is very old temple which is regarded with the greatest veneration. The town is noteworthy only on account of its possessing the tahsil buildings, as well as a police station, a post-office, a road bungalow, a cattle-pound, a dispensary, a middle vernacular school, a lower primary school and an aided school for girls. The dispensary, known as the Radhan Dispensary, is near the railway, and is maintained from the Amarnath trust fund.

Sheorajpur Khas is a small *mauza* of 168 acres, but the town lies principally in Rajpur and Barrajpur, and also includes Dubiana, Munderi and Patkapur. These had at the last census a population of 4,587 persons, of whom 727 were Musalmans. The only industry of the place is weaving, but the market is of considerable importance owing to its situation. A large fair takes place at Chhatarpur on the occasion of the Sheoratri festival, and smaller gatherings occur at other times. Act XX of 1856 has never been applied to the town, but the Village Sanitation Act, 1892, and section 34 of Act V of 1861 are in force.

SHEORAJPUR Tahsil.

The Sheorajpur tahsil lies between Cawnpore on the south-east and Bilhaur on the north-west, the western and south-western boundary being formed by those of Derapur and Akbarpur, while on the north the river Ganges separates it from the Unao district. Owing to the variation in the course of that river the total area is apt to vary from time to time, and the average for the five years ending in 1906 was 172,088 acres or 268·88 square miles.

The tahsil remained unaltered in 1894, but in early days it experienced many changes. The original pargana of Sheorajpur comprised merely the domain of the Raja of that name, and to this was added the *taluka* of Barechamau in 1806. The western portion formed a separate pargana under the name of Sheoli, while the south and south-west belonged to Bithur. The parganas underwent some alterations in 1840, when Sheoli received nine villages from Akbarpur and one from Rasulabad in exchange for seven transferred to Bithur, while at the same time two villages were given to Sheorajpur from Bithur and one was transferred to the latter pargana, and five which had been cut off from the Ganges in 1843 were assigned to Oudh. In 1861 Sheoli was merged in Sheorajpur, and at the same time the Bithur pargana was abolished, the territory being divided between this tahsil and Jajmou or Cawnpore.

The tract forms a subdivision in the charge of a full-powered officer on the district staff, with a tahsildar stationed

at Sheorajpur, and for the purposes of civil jurisdiction it is included in the circle of the Cawnpore munsif. There are police stations at Sheorajpur and Sheoli; but their circles by no means comprise the whole area, as 183 villages belong to the Bithur *thana*, 54 to Sachendi and 31 to Kainjri, although the proposed abolition of the last will involve their transfer to Sheoli.

The population in 1853 numbered 72,215 persons, but this was exclusive of the Bithur villages subsequently transferred. The total in 1865 was 154,827, but by 1872 it had fallen to 141,842; and though it rose to 150,728 in 1881, the next census witnessed a decline, the number of inhabitants being 147,823. During the following ten years the population remained stationary and in 1901 the total was 147,910, including 69,721 females. This gave an average density of 536 to the square mile, a figure which is exceeded only in Cawnpore. Classified by religions there were 141,632 Hindus, 6,227 Musalmans, 42 Sikhs, five Christians and four Aryas. Among the Hindus Brahmans largely predominate, numbering 30,598 souls: next to these come Channars with 16,297, Rajputs with 11,086, Ahirs with 10,417, Lodhs with 8,954, Koris with 7,078, Kurmis with 6,595 and Gadariyas with 5,689. Other castes occurring in numbers exceeding two thousand are Kachhis, Telis, Nais, Dhanuks, Kahars, Baniyas and Dhobis. The Rajputs belong to many different clans, the chief being the Chandels with 3,575 representatives, followed by Gaurs, Chauhans, Kachhwahas and Sengars. The Musalmans are principally Sheikhs, 2,352, Behmas, Pathans, and Faqirs.

The tahsil comprises 327 villages, but no town worthy of the name. The largest places are Sheorajpur and Chaubepur on the grand trunk road, while there are several overgrown agricultural communities, in most cases comprising two or more combined sites, such as Sheoli, Kashipur, Baghpur and Kakupur. The population is almost wholly agricultural, and according to the census returns nearly 68 per cent. of the people were directly dependent on cultivation, and about 7 per cent. on general labour, the only industry of any importance being cotton-weaving.

Means of communication are very fair. Through the east runs the metre-gauge line to Farrukhabad, with stations at

Chaubepur and Sheorajpur, and the south-west corner is traversed by the East Indian Railway, on which there is a station at Bhaupur. The grand trunk road closely follows the course of the former, and there is a network of unmetalled roads, most of which concentrate on Sheoli, whether they lead from Sachendi, Kalyanpur and Bithur in the Cawnpore tahsil, from Rura and Tigain in Akbarpur and from Mangalpur, Rasulabad and Sheorajpur. For the ferries over the Ganges reference may be made to the appendix, where also will be found lists of the markets, fairs, schools and post-offices of the tahsil.

Like Bilhaur to the north, Sheorajpur is divided physically into several different and clearly distinct tracts. There is the usual strip of alluvial land along the Ganges, comprising 21 *mahals*, in many of which the culturable area is very small, the soil for the most part being barren sand; they were last inspected in 1903, and were assessed at Rs. 659. The high bank is of much the same character as in Billhaur, having a hard sandy soil, few facilities for irrigation and an undulating surface broken by many ravines. Here and there are to be found level plots with a fairly fertile soil reaching to the very edge of the cliff and fully cultivated, and these form extensions of the upland loan tract which stretches inland for a considerable distance. Through the western portion of this belt flows the Non, which has its origin in the swamps on the southern borders of Bilhaur. At first a mere brook, with a very tortuous and ill-defined course, it gradually gains in importance, and after crossing the grand trunk road has a marked influence on the land in its vicinity, having wide expanses of sand on either bank, the surface being very undulating and cut up by ravines; the latter increasing in length and depth as it approaches its junction with the Ganges in the extreme north of tahsil Cawnpore. In the upper portion of its course the land lies low and is full of swamps, the soil being a stiff clay and often impregnated with *reh*, from which the river derives its name. This swampy clay embraces the north central area of the tahsil and merges gradually into a mixture of loam and *usar*, with rice-bearing depressions in several places the tract, which extends to the southern boundary, being identical in appearance to that in Bilhaur. It is traversed by the river

22cd.

Pandu, which has a well-defined channel and exercises little influence on the land in its neighbourhood, although the soil becomes somewhat more sandy towards the Cawnpore border. The country to the west of the Pandu is drained by a streamlet known as the Laukiha, which joins the former river in Cawnpore, but it is of little importance and is always dry in the cold weather. The south-west portion of the tahsil lies in the valley of the Rind, which touches the boundary for a few miles in two places, separating Sheorajpur from Derapur and Akbarpur. This is a large stream with a deep channel, and as the soil along its course is soft and sandy, the banks are generally undulating and broken by small ravines. The river is joined near the extreme south-western corner of the tahsil by a tributary called the Supa, which carries down the drainage from the interior during the rains, having its origin in the swampy depression near Nonari Bahadurpur. The soil of the Rind valley is of the usual characteristic variety, being a light reddish loam with a considerable admixture of sand and practically free from *usar*, it is naturally fertile, though inferior to the upland loam of the eastern villages.

On the whole the tahsil is better than Bilhaur, and the amount of *usar*, though large, is much less than in the country to the north. At the settlement of 1840 the area under tillage was 87,258 acres, and thirty years later it had risen to 94,563 or 55·95 per cent. of the whole. It subsequently exhibited a marked decline, the nadir being reached in 1896-97 when only 82,011 acres were cultivated, while in the ten years ending in 1901-02 the annual average was 87,389. Already however an improvement was visible, and in the following five years the average area under the plough was 91,697 acres or 53·28 per cent., and this would have been considerably higher but for the relapse to 88,089 acres in 1905-06. The barren area is remarkably large, amounting to 52,000 acres or 30·22 per cent. of the entire tahsil, though from this should be deducted the 5,875 acres under water and 7,208 occupied by sites, roads, railways and the like. The remainder of the area, 28,392 acres in all, is described as culturable, though it is probable that the land still available for profitable

tillage represents but a small proportion of this amount : the figure includes 7,908 acres of groves and 3,460 acres of current fallow.

In the matter of irrigation Sheorajpur is as well provided as any part of the district, and a great improvement has been effected in this respect by the development of the canal system. The land between the Ganges and the Non has materially benefitted by the extension of the Sheorajpur distributary and the shorter channel known as the Dubiana. Between the Non and the Pandu flows the Cawnpore branch canal, giving off the Madhopur, Taktauli, right and left Ranjitpur and the Kalyanpur distributaries; while the *doab* of the Pandu and Rind is supplied by the Kansua distributary of the Etawah branch and its supplementary channel the Sheoli. On an average 50·77 per cent. of the cultivated area is watered, and out of 46,552 acres 34,815 or 74·79 per cent. are irrigated from canals, 9,082 acres from wells and 2,655 from tanks and other sources. There are some 1,300 brick wells, of the usual half-masonry type, and the number has largely increased since 1870; but at the same time it would appear that wells have been supplanted to a considerable extent by the canals.

If the actual area under cultivation shows a decline, there has been a very marked increase in another direction, the area bearing two crops in the year having risen from 13,032 acres in 1870 to a present average of 27,396, or no less than 29·88 per cent. of the net area tilled, this being by far the highest proportion in the district. It has involved a notable expansion of the *khari* harvest, which now averages 58,869 as against 56,697 acres sown for the *rabi*. In either case the fluctuations are great, and the relative position depends largely on the character of the season. In the quality of the crops grown the tahsil compares favourably with the rest of the district, and a decided improvement has been achieved of late. Wheat now averages 28·05 per cent. of the *rabi* area, while mixed with gram or barley it makes up an additional 17·69 per cent. Barley, alone or mixed with gram, occupies 46·06 and gram by itself 3·65 per cent. There are some 650 acres under poppy, a large amount of garden crops and potatoes and a little tobacco. In the *khari* the usual combination of *juar* and *arhar* takes up 33·83, cotton and *arhar* 14·2 and *bajra* and *arhar* 3·54 per

cent. Among the chief staples is maize, which has grown in popularity to a surprising extent and now accounts for 23·76 per cent. of the *kharif*, and other staples include rice with 9·91, sugarcane with 3·82 and indigo with 7·14 per cent. The last still survives with greater pertinacity than in other parts of the district, but the decline in the last few years has been very marked: the average for five years is 4,206, but the figure in 1906-07, the last year, was only 2,761 acres. The loss has been immense, for the crop was very profitable and the *zamin-dars* sunk large sums in vats and factories: some idea of its former importance may be gained from the fact that as late as 1891-92 the area was no less than 18,286 acres, or more than one-fourth of the entire *kharif*.

At the recent settlement the area included in holdings was 96,366 acres, and of this 60·154 or 62·4 per cent. were in the hands of occupancy tenants, the figure having remained practically unchanged for thirty years. Proprietors cultivated 12·9 and tenants-at-will 21·2, while the remaining 3·5 per cent. was rent-free. Simple cash rates are the almost invariable rule, and the average rental is Rs. 6·23 per acre, the highest in the district: that of tenants-at-will being no less than Rs. 7·35, while for occupancy lands it is Rs. 5·84. The rise has been very great, as in 1870 ordinary tenants paid but Rs. 5·07 and privileged tenants Rs. 5·02. There is a considerable difference in the rates paid by the various castes of cultivators, for Kachhis, who hold about 3 per cent. of the tenant area, pay as much as Rs. 8·71, Kurmis and Chamars, with 5·5 and 4·9 per cent. respectively, pay Rs. 7·25 and Rs. 7·05; while Rajputs pay no more than an average of Rs. 5·82 on 16·4 per cent. On the other hand the dominant factor is the quality of the land, the higher castes generally holding the better fields. Brahmans cultivate 31·5 per cent. of the area and pay Rs. 6·58; while Ahirs, who have 13·5 per cent., pay only Rs. 5·49: and similarly the respective rents of Lodhs and Gadariyas, whose cultivation amounts to 6·2 and 5·9 per cent. the whole, are Rs. 5·81 and Rs. 5·18.

The revenue demand of the tahsil at successive settlements is shown in the appendix.* Excluding the alluvial lands, there are now 848 *mahals*, of which 466 are joint *zamindari*,

* Appendix, tables IX and X.

264 are owned by single proprietors, 71 are perfect and 47 imperfect *pattidari*. The history of Sheorajpur is practically the history of the Chandels, which need not be here repeated; and apart from them the only landowners were the Dube Chaudhris of Bithur and the Kurmis of the north-west, who derived their title from the Sheorajpur Raja. The hereditary *zamindars* had lost more than half their ancestral property by 1870, and since that date much of the remainder has been lost to the Chandels, whose only large properties are Onha and Rawatpur while even the latter is now a religious trust in the hands of Brahmans. Kurmis have gained considerably, but the increase in their estates is small in comparison with that of the Brahmans, who are now the chief proprietors of the tahsil.

SIKANDRA, *Tahsil* BHOGNIPUR.

An old town standing in 26° 22' N. and 79° 37' E., on the Mughal road in the north-west of the tahsil, at a distance of forty-five miles from Cawnpore and about seventeen miles from Pukhrayan. Branch roads lead to Rasdhan and Derapur on the east, to Bijamau ferry on the Jumna on the south-west and to Mangalpur, Rasulabad and Bilhaur on the north-east. The place is said to have been founded by Sikandar Lodi, though nothing is known of its history beyond the fact that it supplanted Bi'aspur, an old village on the Jumna, as the capital of a pargana which remained in existence till 1861. From 1804 to 1840 the tract was the *jagir* of the heirs of Himmat Bahadur Goshain, as already narrated in the history of the district. In old days the town was of some importance owing to its position on the main road, but the market now is of purely local significance. There is an old Mughal *sarai* here, and numerous remains of tombs and buildings testify to the former prosperity of the place. The population in 1847 numbered 3,484, but this had fallen to 2,952 by 1872, partly as the result of the destruction by an incendiary fire of a large portion of the town in 1861. By 1881 the total had further declined to 2,100, and this led to the withdrawal of Act XX of 1856 which had been in force since 1861, while in 1891 the number of inhabitants was only 1,947. The last census however witnessed a marked improvement, the total rising to 2,667, including 743 Musalmans and many Kurmis.

The place possesses a police station, a post-office, a cattle-pound and an upper primary school; markets are held in the bazar twice a week. The revenue *mauza* of Sikandra is 2,221 acres in extent, of which about 1,515 are under cultivation: irrigation is obtained from the Sikandra, Salahra and Rasdhan distributaries of the Bhognipur canal, and on the first-named there is an inspection bungalow about a mile to the south of the town. The revenue demand is Rs. 3,445, and is assessed on eight *mahals*: the bulk of the land is held by the Gaur Rajputs of Khanpur Dilwal, the rest being in the possession of Musalmans, Banias and Brahmans.

SIRSAUL, *Tahsil* NARWAL.

This large agricultural village stands in 26° 16' N. and 80° 30' E., to the south of Maharajpur on the grand trunk road, at a distance of fifteen miles from Cawnpore. To the east of the village, but actually situated in Phuphuar, is the Sirsaal station on the East Indian Railway, from which a metalled road, connected with Maharajpur, runs to Narwal. The place is noticeable only for its size and the number of its inhabitants. The area is no less than 4,372 acres, of which 2,705 are cultivated, irrigation being obtained from the recently constructed Subhaulti branch of the Haluakhada distributary. The revenue demand on account of the 23 *mahals* is Rs. 7,247, and the proprietors are Bais, the original settlers of the village, Gautam, Gaur and Raghubansi Rajputs, Brahmans, Kalwars and Kayasths. The population was 3,908 in 1847, but has declined falling to 3,470 in 1872, while it was 3,502 in 1891 and at the last census 3,485, including 330 Musalmans and large bodies of Bais and Brahmans. Sirsaal possesses a post-office, an upper primary school and a bazar in which markets are held twice a week: the Dasahra festival is the occasion for a fair of little importance.

TARGAON, *Tahsil* GHATAMPUR.

A large but purely agricultural village standing in the extreme north of the pargana, in 26° 15' N. and 80° 8' E., at a distance of twenty-two miles south-west from Cawnpore and nine miles north from the tahsil headquarters. Along the

western boundary flows the Non river and to the east is the Ghatampur branch canal, which here gives off the Bhadras and Tilsanda distributaries. The village lands are 3,490 acres in extent, some 2,300 acres being under cultivation, and are assessed at Rs. 4,500. They are held in co-parcenary tenure by Chandels, Sengars and Brahmans. The population at the last census was 2,367, of whom 58 were Musalmans, fully one-fourth of the inhabitants being Chandels.

TILSAHRI, *Tahsil* NARWAL.

The adjoining sites of Tilsahri Buzurg and Tilsahri Khurd stand on the unmetalled road from Narwal to Chakeri station, in $26^{\circ} 19' N.$ and $80^{\circ} 25' E.$, at a distance of seven miles north from the tahsil headquarters. They contained in 1901 a population of 2,675 persons, of whom 97 were Musalmans, the inhabitants of Tilsahri Khurd alone numbering 2,030. The place is purely agricultural, but possesses a small bazar in which markets are held twice a week, as well as an upper primary school. A small fair takes place during the month of Chait in honour of Nanda Devi. Tilsahri Khurd has an area of 1,582 acres, is assessed at Rs. 3,200 and is owned partly by Gautam Rajputs and partly by Kalwars. Tilsahri Buzurg, in spite of its name, is a smaller village some 1,240 acres in extent and, like the other, is an old Gautam property.

GAZETTEER
OF
CAWNPORE.

APPENDICES.

GAZETTEER

OF

CAWNPORE.

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APPENDIX.

TABLE I.—Population by Tahsils, 1901.

Tahsil.	Total.			Hindu.			Musalmans.			Others.		
	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Akbarpur ..	107,729	57,863	49,861	100,333	53,911	46,422	7,266	3,835	3,391	130	2	58
Bilhaur ..	156,261	83,691	72,570	143,705	77,151	66,554	12,516	6,513	6,003	40	27	13
Bhognipur..	141,346	74,475	66,871	128,919	68,152	60,767	12,330	6,261	6,069	97	62	35
Cawnpore ..	338,507	187,037	151,470	276,479	152,162	124,317	56,345	31,236	25,109	5,633	3,639	2,044
Derapur ..	149,593	79,873	69,720	141,596	75,687	65,909	7,985	4,177	3,808	12	9	3
Narwal ..	92,860	47,909	44,951	89,113	46,038	43,075	3,735	1,862	1,873	12	9	3
Sheorajpur ..	147,910	73,13	69,721	141,632	74,911	66,721	6,227	3,243	2,984	51	35	16
Ghatampur ..	124,662	64,890	59,772	118,851	61,865	56,986	5,735	2,972	2,763	76	53	23
Total	1,253,865	673,932	584,936	1,140,628	609,977	530,75	112,139	60,149	51,990	6,101	3,506	2,195

TABLE II.—Population by *Thanas*, 1901.

Thana.	Total.			Hindus.			Musalmans.			Others.		
	Persons.	Males.	Fe- males.	Persons.	Males.	Fe- males.	Persons.	Males.	Fe- males.	Per- sons.	Males.	Fe- males.
1			4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
(Kotwali	71,418	41,126	30,292	57,566	33,217	24,349	12,438	7,087	5,401	1,364	822	542
Colonelganj	46,321	26,053	20,268	38,200	18,875	14,325	11,794	6,573	5,221	1,327	605	723
Anwarganj	39,989	22,077	17,912	27,165	15,111	12,054	12,635	6,851	5,784	189	115	74
Filkhana	24,295	13,317	10,978	17,267	9,477	7,790	6,753	3,650	2,073	275	160	115
(Nawabganj.	6,140	3,351	2,789	5,680	3,090	2,590	440	252	188	20	9	11
Cantonment	27,158	16,032	11,136	18,065	10,331	7,734	6,793	3,891	2,902	2,900	1,810	490
Kalyanpur ..	29,813	15,781	14,032	28,536	15,121	13,415	1,259	646	613	18	14	4
Bidhau ..	35,700	18,781	16,969	34,024	17,875	16,149	1,604	816	788	72	40	32
Bithur ..	51,494	26,950	24,514	48,354	25,262	23,092	3,097	1,662	1,435	43	26	17
Sachendi ..	54,118	23,673	25,445	52,159	27,658	24,501	1,856	960	896	103	55	48
Akbarpur ..	66,351	35,778	30,573	60,520	32,725	27,795	3,708	2,986	2,722	123	67	56
Gajpur ..	51,665	27,218	24,447	49,422	25,985	23,437	2,233	1,327	1,006	10	6	4
Bilhaur ..	65,809	34,813	30,996	58,395	30,981	27,414	7,353	3,815	3,570	29	17	12
Kainjri ..	42,608	23,058	19,550	40,539	21,939	18,600	2,037	1,108	949	12	11	1
Kakwan ..	36,463	19,767	16,896	34,645	18,773	15,872	1,817	993	824	1	2	..
Rasulabad ..	45,985	24,745	21,340	43,019	22,214	19,805	2,363	1,528	1,435	8	3	..
Bhoginpur ..	67,996	35,619	32,377	60,697	31,928	28,769	7,248	3,659	3,589	51	32	19
Musanagar ..	80,340	46,030	44,310	78,214	43,920	43,294	2,085	1,085	1,001	40	25	15
Sikandra ..	59,618	31,388	27,780	56,153	30,008	26,145	3,457	1,825	1,632	8	5	3
Dersapur ..	52,791	27,793	24,998	49,842	26,285	23,557	2,945	1,505	1,440	4	3	1
Mangalpur ..	52,775	28,340	24,426	50,124	27,021	23,103	2,613	1,322	1,321	8	6	2
Narwal ..	26,774	13,698	13,076	25,848	13,233	12,615	921	462	459	5	3	2
Maharajpur ..	41,202	21,450	19,752	39,145	20,420	18,725	2,031	1,025	1,026	6	5	1
Sarh ..	35,850	18,499	17,351	34,701	17,917	16,784	1,148	581	567	1	1	..
Sheorajpur ..	49,998	25,653	23,345	47,759	25,448	23,311	2,233	1,201	1,031	7	4	3
Sheoli ..	54,718	29,068	25,050	52,784	28,018	24,756	1,929	1,038	882	14	12	8
Ghatampur ...	62,484	33,970	31,514	32,096	32,230	29,866	3,333	1,700	1,633	55	40	15
Sajeti ..	25,995	13,495	12,500	24,709	12,815	11,894	1,273	671	602	13	9	4
Total..	1,236,868	673,932	564,936	1,140,628	609,877	530,751	112,139	60,149	51,980	6,101	3,903	2,195

TABLE III.—*Vital Statistics.*

Year.	Births.				Deaths.			
	Total.	Males.	Females	Rate per 1,000.	Total.	Males.	Females	Rate per 1,000.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1891	40,862	21,434	19,428	33.78	44,287	23,854	20,433	36.61
1892	41,568	21,679	19,889	34.36	40,432	21,741	18,691	33.42
1893	47,583	21,848	22,735	39.33	30,067	16,090	13,977	24.85
1894	48,778	25,538	23,240	40.32	58,538	30,987	27,551	48.39
1895	45,113	23,747	21,366	37.29	30,676	16,295	14,381	25.36
1896	36,789	24,158	21,631	37.85	37,864	20,453	17,406	31.30
1897	36,389	19,251	17,138	30.08	51,159	27,680	23,479	42.29
1898	41,826	21,951	19,875	34.57	35,721	18,566	17,155	29.53
1899	55,002	28,798	26,204	45.47	46,148	24,120	22,028	38.15
1900	47,857	24,972	22,903	*39.58	35,253	18,565	16,688	*29.14
1901	59,377	30,782	28,595	47.16	47,247	24,487	22,607	37.53
1902	51,006	31,854	29,152	48.46	62,310	31,126	31,184	49.50
1903	60,061	31,238	28,823	47.71	65,604	33,218	32,386	52.11
1904	58,496	30,631	27,865	46.46	50,631	25,662	24,969	40.22
1905	50,312	26,294	24,018	39.97	58,496	29,861	28,635	46.47
1906	46,994	24,530	22,464	37.33	74,875	38,489	36,386	59.48
1907	44,979	23,506	21,473	35.73	66,226	33,611	32,615	52.61
1908	47,620	24,959	22,661	37.83	78,910	48,641	38,259	62.67
1909								
1910								
1911								
1912								
1913								
1914								
1915								
1916								
1917								
1918								
1919								

* The rates from 1891 to 1900 are calculated from the returns of the 1891 census.

TABLE IV.—Deaths according to cause.

Year.			Total deaths from—					
			All causes.	Plague.	Cholera.	Small-pox.	Fever.	com-plaints.
1			2	3	4	5	6	7
1891	44,287	..	1,117	2	34,943	828
1892	40,432	..	786	1	21,771	546
1893	30,067	..	14	2	22,991	317
1894	58,538	..	5,836	22	42,016	758
1895	30,676	..	343	58	23,448	343
1896	37,864	..	85	559	28,587	318
1897	51,159	..	778	99	40,239	839
1898	35,721	..	19	1	28,195	213
1899	46,148	..	1	3	34,857	405
1900	35,253	4	96	23	25,930	320
1901	47,247	..	805	92	32,516	437
1902	62,310	9,753	53	148	32,184	794
1903	65,604	13,972	357	66	28,244	1,181
1904	50,631	6,218	29	34	26,671	699
1905	58,496	13,210	8	38	29,089	593
1906	74,875	4,105	2,024	183	45,268	968
1907	66,226	11,297	290	16	40,126	510
1908	78,900	1,352	1,393	154	57,250	516
1909						
1910						
1911						
1912						
1913						
1914						
1915						
1916						
1917						
1918						
1919						

TABLE V.—*Statistics of cultivation and irrigation, 1314 Faslî.*

Pargana and tahsil.	Total area.	Waste.	Culturable.	Cultivated.						Dry.	Total.	Double- cropped.
				Irrigated.				Tanks.	Other sources.			
				Total.	Canal.	Wells.	Acres.					
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	
Akbarpur ..	158,049	48,453	25,669	37,575	27,294	8,903	..	1,372	46,352	83,927	16,095	
Bilhaur..	214,944	69,679	38,357	46,422	22,571	18,787	..	5,064	60,486	106,908	26,886	
Bhognipur ..	241,553	66,720	33,863	42,010	41,419	69	..	522	98,960	140,970	18,224	
Cawnpore ..	172,643	51,581	31,580	31,242	14,779	15,401	..	1,062	58,232	89,474	14,403	
Derapur..	198,142	45,453	34,046	44,990	31,706	12,607	..	677	73,653	118,643	20,194	
Narwal ..	134,521	32,852	25,867	25,164	10,295	13,440	..	1,429	50,638	75,802	6,452	
Sheorajpur ..	172,300	51,574	27,713	47,322	35,545	8,938	..	2,839	45,400	92,722	27,472	
Ghatampur ..	220,639	38,703	43,553	31,157	27,051	2,693	..	1,443	107,226	133,383	17,022	
Total ..	1,512,800	405,323	260,648	305,882	210,660	30,814	..	14,408	540,947	816,929	146,698	

TABLE VI.—Area in acres under the principal crops, Tahsil Akbarpur.

Year.	Rabi.					Kharif.				
	Wheat alone.	Wheat mixed.	Gram.	Barley alone and mixed.	Opium.	Total.	Rice.	Cotton alone and mixed.	Bajra alone and mixed.	Juar alone and mixed.
<i>Faali.</i>										
1305	46,602	7,924	8,939	26,615	719	51,029	5,755	9,495	674	17,672
1306	48,686	8,028	9,876	26,321	665	46,880	6,718	9,143	133	19,597
1307	49,571	8,361	12,749	28,765	771	41,398	6,132	7,017	4,695	15,597
1308	47,176	9,086	12,302	22,140	500	47,627	5,747	8,595	1,916	20,863
1309	49,722	7,700	12,671	24,379	428	49,487	6,674	10,273	1,107	20,614
1310	49,543	10,360	11,529	23,861	406	49,642	5,506	11,500	878	21,029
1311	55,483	13,506	10,437	29,017	572	39,550	1,780	6,401	6,039	19,810
1312	57,632	10,298	10,107	33,404	984	*
1313	48,046	6,580	7,854	26,389	414	50,447	5,639	11,623	1,977	22,101
1314	45,931	1,023	8,133	20,016	443	53,765	7,170	12,608	1,286	22,881
1315
1316
1317
1318
1319
1320
1321
1322
1323
1324
1325
1326

* No returns available on account of settlement operations.

TABLE VI (continued).—Area in acres under the principal crops, Tahsil Caunpore.

Year.	Rabi.					Kharif.								
	Total.	Wheat alone.	Wheat mixed.	Gram.	Barley alone and mixed.	Opium.	Total	Rice.	Cotton alone and mixed.	Bajra alone and mixed.	Juar alone and mixed.	Maize.	Sugar-cane.	Indigo.
<i>Fasli.</i>														
1905	47,253	5,065	12,048	907	27,212	580	52,689	3,201	5,601	1,668	26,577	7,940	941	1,866
1906	50,213	6,029	14,229	1,452	26,556	575	50,235	4,243	5,777	1,098	26,908	7,022	883	548
1907	51,667	5,548	16,382	2,151	25,465	602	48,393	4,638	4,953	4,402	20,677	8,769	864	972
1908	49,000	6,272	17,108	1,743	22,016	361	50,598	4,438	4,943	2,049	25,264	5,252	932	842
1909	52,371	4,348	17,518	2,752	25,782	342	53,112	5,514	6,380	1,301	26,773	7,219	1,345	329
1910	50,216	5,413	17,329	1,820	23,977	371	53,810	4,443	6,946	1,113	28,560	7,816	1,072	459
1911	55,377	9,118	15,199	637	28,241	447	44,984	2,025	2,989	5,145	27,662	3,003	642	792
1912	*				
1913	44,081	3,775	11,862	2,191	24,080	213	53,636	4,242	5,659	1,341	32,271	5,851	1,233	247
1914	47,866	5,363	13,990	1,833	25,782	183	54,370	5,175	6,717	1,518	29,860	6,272	1,406	219
1915
1916
1917
1918
1919
1920
1921
1922
1923
1924
1925
1926

* No returns available on account of settlement operations.

TABLE VI (continued).—Area in acres under the principal crops, Tahsil Derapur.

Year.	Rabi.						Kharif.							
	Total.	Wheat alone.	Wheat mixed.	Gram.	Barley alone and mixed.	Opium.	Total.	Rice.	Cotton alone and mixed.	Bajra alone and mixed.	Juar alone and mixed.	Mirze.	Sugar-cane.	Indigo.
<i>East.</i>														
1905	66,472	10,374	16,878	3,404	32,713	1,707	76,576	4,837	14,668	4,199	28,100	12,834	1,572	6,358
1906	68,683	10,166	18,470	5,939	31,407	1,650	68,851	3,955	14,664	3,600	29,751	10,352	1,492	1,985
1907	67,334	10,100	21,484	6,435	26,272	1,387	63,190	4,564	10,853	11,038	25,027	5,729	1,672	2,494
1908	63,031	10,004	21,988	3,746	24,986	1,277	71,082	3,711	13,160	7,199	31,983	7,737	1,525	3,059
1909	66,200	9,527	21,022	5,332	27,379	1,174	71,082	2,899	15,760	5,685	30,454	10,124	2,372	1,566
1910	65,288	12,623	17,825	3,618	28,325	1,182	72,324	3,057	18,465	4,570	30,618	10,955	1,688	844
1911	72,702	16,264	16,644	1,162	34,667	1,639	62,207	512	10,387	14,227	27,166	5,513	1,370	731
1912	81,404	15,131	17,903	2,693	42,041	1,321	*							
1913	54,772	9,261	9,653	5,102	25,520	1,369	72,232	3,781	15,399	6,930	32,006	9,848	2,110	70
1914	89,883	11,364	13,206	3,922	28,718	917	78,602	4,854	17,045	6,271	33,287	11,464	2,272	149
1915														
1916														
1917														
1918														
1919														
1920														
1921														
1922														
1923														
1924														
1925														
1926														

* No returns available on account of settlement operations.

TABLE VI (continued).—Area in acres under the principal crops, *Talsil Narwal*.

Year.	Rabi.						Kharif.							
	Total.	Wheat alone.	Wheat mixed.	Gram.	Barley alone and mixed.	Opium.	Total.	Rice.	Cotton alone and mixed.	Bajra alone and mixed.	Juar alone and mixed.	Maize.	Sugar-cane.	Indigo.
<i>Fasli.</i>														
1305	35,728	1,719	9,903	269	22,864	458	41,087	1,693	7,984	1,868	21,073	2,456	553	801
1306	38,883	1,471	11,340	648	24,583	424	37,976	2,070	7,840	1,279	20,638	2,272	555	347
1307	39,498	1,235	11,895	1,131	24,410	420	34,695	375	6,788	2,026	16,595	1,522	852	237
1308	37,257	1,448	13,119	587	21,298	279	38,532	1,597	1,017	2,332	22,277	1,398	1,035	204
1309	33,958	929	12,525	1,360	24,417	286	39,396	2,152	8,879	1,687	20,840	1,894	1,079	27
1310	39,117	1,127	13,563	956	23,791	379	40,243	1,547	9,927	1,530	21,243	2,428	711	136
1311	42,598	1,827	14,721	295	24,899	322	35,813	815	6,543	5,131	19,894	855	747	226
1312	*
1313	37,740	477	9,064	1,500	25,879	158	42,325	2,733	8,243	1,542	24,531	20,93	1,063	6
1314	39,056	1,015	12,782	970	23,496	123	43,018	2,511	9,608	1,694	22,619	2,233	1,742	22
1315
1316
1317
1318
1319
1320
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1324
1325
1326

*No returns available on account of settlement operations.

TABLE VI (continued).—Area in acres under the principal crops, Tahsil Sheorajpur.

Year.	Rabi.					Kharif.								
	Total.	Wheat alone.	Wheat mixed.	Gram.	Barley alone and mixed.	Opium.	Total.	Rice.	Cotton alone and mixed.	Bajra alone and mixed.	Juar alone and mixed.	Maize.	Sugar-cane.	Indigo.
1305	57,183	13,556	7,639	914	32,384	831	65,807	4,242	6,733	1,668	26,466	17,546	2,453	10,513
1306	59,373	16,682	9,671	1,844	28,355	968	60,735	7,233	7,740	1,063	18,067	16,378	2,143	5,361
1307	59,831	16,877	10,668	2,431	27,007	988	54,710	8,640	6,76	3,612	15,234	9,456	1,654	8,185
1308	56,006	17,590	11,349	1,917	22,743	679	61,527	7,373	7,650	1,815	19,237	14,427	1,726	7,168
1309	56,023	14,835	13,185	3,124	22,843	552	63,905	8,547	13,428	1,125	18,902	16,010	2,821	8,846
1310	57,093	17,218	10,735	3,038	24,511	579	61,635	5,746	9,307	992	19,637	16,233	2,564	4,998
1311	66,898	19,037	11,295	1,273	33,567	723	52,557	2,958	2,683	4,880	20,370	9,197	1,713	6,378
1312	51,859	14,806	7,269	1,832	23,190	732	61,432	6,101	7,150	1,563	16,330	12,300	2,270	4,817
1313	51,612	14,608	7,606	2,017	24,373	648	67,586	5,610	10,565	1,465	21,573	15,595	2,358	2,078
1314								8,765	11,192	1,511	21,657	16,605	2,181	2,761
1315														
1316														
1317														
1318														
1319														
1320														
1321														
1322														
1323														
1324														
1325														
1326														

* No returns available on account of settlement operations.

TABLE VII.—*Criminal Justice.*

Year.	Number of persons convicted or bound over in respect of—												Cases under—	
	Offences against public tranquillity (chapter VIII).	Offences affecting life.	Grievous hurt.	Rape.	Cattle theft.	Criminal force and assault.	Theft.	Robbery and dacoity.	Receiving stolen property.	Criminal trespass.	Bad livelihood.	Keeping the peace.	Opium Act.	Excise Act.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1896	54	34	59	4	54	63	897	21	181	519	18	84	31	27
1897	25	57	24	1	71	40	1,358	37	220	658	41	33	19	15
1898	23	40	*185	6	40	36	523	34	119	237	53	35	10	21
1899	43	26	*255	6	43	58	570	53	155	189	68	19	10	31
1900	87	49	*138	3	22	36	538	71	124	191	160	30	31	18
1901	106	31	*199	5	35	36	425	17	84	161	240	29	35	18
1902	105	31	*227	5	35	46	382	17	96	190	284	43	23	14
1903	79	34	33	2	43	63	448	11	94	233	197	12	14	11
1904	119	30	34	1	43	55	373	17	72	218	167	14	25	40
1905	73	3	28	1	40	26	373	19	132	10	245	57	16	17
1906	99	11	31	2	59	15	437	33	175	10	235	53	14	18
1907	38	38	34	1	32	41	260	9	119	27	248	57	14	16
1908
1909
1910
1911
1912
1913
1914
1915
1916

* Includes all persons convicted of hurt. Figures for grievous hurt are not available.

TABLE VIII.—*Cognizable crime.*

Year.			Number of cases investi- gated by police.			Number of persons—		
			<i>Suo motu.</i>	By orders of Magis- trate.	Sent up for trial.	Tried.	Acquit- ted or dis- charged.	Con- victed.
1			2	3	4	5	6	7
1893	2,945	93	2,501	3,151	511	2,640
1894	2,512	43	2,175	2,689	430	2,259
1895	3,671	47	3,247	3,985	594	3 391
1896	3,190	51	2,589	3,326	566	2,760
1897	4,663	1	3,731	4,529	476	4,053
1898	2,739	11	2,095	2,441	303	2,138
1899	2,574	32	1,926	2,351	273	2,078
1900	2,906	51	2,225	2,832	467	2,365
1901	3,187	57	2,340	2,945	614	2,331
1902	3,239	25	2,187	2,628	595	2,033
1903	3,363	17	2,319	2,903	545	2,115
1904	2,264	58	1,292	1,819	471	1,348
1905	2,558	174	1,491	1,930	496	1,434
1906	2,575	72	1,385	2,188	509	1,679
1907	1,770	67	1,102	1,466	394	1,072
1908						
1909						
1910						
1911						
1912						
1913						
1914						
1915						
1916						
1917						

NOTE.—Columns 2 and 3 should show cases instituted during the year.

TABLE IX.—Revenue demand at successive settlements.

Pargana.*	Year of settlement.					
	1802.	1805.	1808.	1812.	1840.	1872.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Akbarpur ..	2,29,286	2,34,512	2,20,471	2,30,665	2,14,668	2,23,675
Bilhaur ..	2,21,341	2,16,243	2,15,081	2,13,411	1,98,460	1,94,410
Bhogmipur ..	2,10,316	2,08,347	2,06,801	2,16,059	1,93,346	2,11,330
Cawnpore ..	3,31,023	3,08,087	2,90,496	2,96,814	3,02,123	2,61,880
Derapur ..	2,96,822	2,90,479	3,01,355	3,04,832	2,61,001	2,79,185
Narwal ..	2,79,828	2,65,945	2,30,045	2,52,136	2,37,773	2,28,915
Sheorapur ..	3,31,452	3,07,225	3,01,731	2,91,539	2,73,705	2,74,170
Ghatampur ..	3,53,455	3,47,132	3,32,867	3,08,161	3,02,258	2,92,050
Rasulabad ..	2,22,033	2,13,170	2,21,354	2,16,931	1,98,442	1,95,750
Total ..	24,69,056	23,86,090	23,16,201	23,30,548	21,81,776	21,59,365
						20,16,174

* NOTE.—Owing to the changes in the area of several parganas consequent on the abolition of Rasulabad in 1894, the revenue of the first six settlements represents that of the old parganas.

TABLE X.—*Present demand for revenue and cesses for the year 1314 Fasli.*

Pargana and tahsil.	Where included, in <i>Ain-i-Akbari.</i>	Revenue.	Cesses.	Total.	Incidence per acre.	
					Cultivated.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Akbarpur	2,06,945	20,698	2,26,983	3 11 3	1 7 0
Bilhaur	2,94,731	29,473	3,24,204	3 0 6	1 8 11
Bhogipur	..	2,53,733	25,375	2,79,108	1 15 8	1 2 5
Cawnpore	..	2,49,591	25,034	2,74,625	3 0 11	1 9 5
Derapur	2,88,890	28,891	3,17,781	2 10 6	1 9 8
Narwar	2,00,918	20,092	2,21,010	2 14 8	1 10 3
Sheorajpur	..	2,73,367	27,337	3,00,704	3 3 9	1 11 11
Ghatampur	..	2,46,044	24,619	2,70,663	1 15 3	1 3 7
Total	..	20,13,619	2,01,459	22,15,078	2 9 10	1 7 4

TABLE XII.—*Stamps.*

Year.	Receipts from—			Total charges.
	Non-Judicial.	Court-fee, including copies.	All sources.	
	2	3	4	
1	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1890-91	64,473	1,92,739	2,58,057	6,702
1891-92	65,841	1,94,572	2,60,803	6,371
1892-93	64,659	2,10,432	2,75,426	6,890
1893-94	71,751	1,96,472	2,68,715	9,908
1894-95	74,088	1,88,391	2,62,909	6,281
1895-96	84,526	1,95,588	2,81,790	5,483
1896-97	75,186	2,10,883	2,86,404	6,014
1897-98	60,058	1,99,607	2,61,712	5,653
1898-99	64,827	2,03,496	2,71,832	5,933
1899-1900	74,281	2,32,056	3,10,629	6,184
1900-01	70,120	1,97,130	2,70,036	4,077*
1901-02	81,226	2,30,652	3,15,103	7,997
1902-03	71,344	2,14,419	2,88,764	7,469
1903-04	88,551	2,50,797	3,37,560	10,479
1904-05	76,028	2,34,545	3,13,834	8,109
1905-06	87,219	2,38,065	3,28,690	8,253
1906-07	78,373	2,59,122	3,40,751	7,392
1907-08	87,157	2,98,559	3,84,224	8,390
1908-09				
1909-10				
1910-11				
1911-12				
1912-13				
1913-14				
1914-15				
1915-16				
1916-17				
1917-18				

* Discount only.

TABLE XIII.—*Income-tax.*

Year.	Total receipts.	Collected by Companies.				Frontr of Companies.		Other sources, Part IV.				Total charges.	Objections under Part IV.		
		Asses. secs.		Tax.		Asses. secs.		Tax.		Under Rs. 2,000.			Over Rs. 2,000.		
		3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12		13		
1	2	Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.	
1890-91	1,57,716	118	8,157	9	18,745	3,671	56,999	497	65,246	816	1,274	353			
1891-92	1,57,079	127	8,423	8	13,716	3,700	57,089	503	61,242	895	1,150	285			
1892-93	1,65,446	135	8,445	7	18,292	3,966	62,202	507	67,888	1,137	1,598	561			
1893-94	1,63,204	131	10,048	7	19,994	3,358	57,003	482	62,387	956	1,182	266			
1894-95	1,62,131	137	10,211	9	18,888	3,460	55,860	492	64,957	566	1,054	227			
1895-96	1,67,098	136	10,726	9	25,633	3,152	53,513	481	62,826	90	1,004	244			
1896-97	1,70,311	173	13,017	9	36,694	2,858	48,247	448	52,266	257	883	346			
1897-98	1,72,245	214	14,510	9	41,178	2,786	44,133	423	57,171	203	972	278			
1898-99	1,65,623	250	15,332	9	36,896	2,311	42,004	409	55,607	317	542	170			
1899-1900	1,68,004	259	17,674	11	39,792	2,489	41,734	407	53,831	246	560	143			
1900-01	1,96,923	251	19,159	10	36,792	2,525	43,199	524	50,047	229	672	157			
1901-02	1,92,019	346	22,048	8	39,665	2,650	46,144	520	66,823	389	591	149			
1902-03	2,00,537	332	22,410	11	45,886	2,747	47,214	519	66,550	463	647	215			
1903-04	1,51,611	218	21,443	10	26,905	1,936	27,573	501	64,818	423	399	130			
1904-05	1,64,131	198	20,514	9	27,326	1,196	29,496	483	72,981	206	318	105			
1905-06	1,60,978	212	21,110	8	22,997	1,046	27,810	507	72,503	199	330	131			
1906-07	2,65,961	203	21,025	10	53,358	1,044	27,924	563	88,661	135	289	123			
1907-08															
1908-09															
1909-10															
1910-11															
1911-12															
1912-13															
1913-14															
1914-15															
1915-16															
1916-17															

TABLE XIV.—*Income-tax by tahsils (Part IV only).*

[illegible]

TABLE XIV--(continued).—*Income-tax by Tahsils (Part IV only).*

[illegible]

TABLE XIV—(concl'd.)—*Income-tax by Tahsils (Part IV only).*

[illegible]

TABLE XV.—*District Board.*

[illegible]

* Formerly net receipts only were shown. From this year receipts and also expenditure are given.
† From this year the gross receipts from ferries were for the first time credited to the District Board.

TABLE XVI.—Municipality of Cawnpore.

Year.	Income.						Expenditure.														
	Octroi.	Tax on houses and lands.	Receipts.		Other taxes.	Rents.	Loans.	Other sources.	Total.	Admin- istration and collec- tion of taxes.	Public safety.	Water supply and drainage.		Conser- vancy.	Houses and public works.	Public instruction.	Other heads.	Total.			
			Terminals.	3								Capital.	Mainte- nance.								
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19			
1890-91	90,881	29,378	...	45,623	1,64,882	9,269	18,769	11,293	1,671	50,171	4,088	1,832	15,571	51,893	...	1,65,007	
1891-92	80,927	46,033	1,00,000	4,55,638	6,53,491	10,063	18,043	17,475	2,645	57,747	3,854	1,387	30,173	32,744	...	1,74,111	
1892-93 ...	1,04,842	65,549	41,184	3,00,000	2,18,105	7,29,680	32,271	18,790	8,25,634	27,792	49,491	3,815	1,315	27,505	23,327	...	9,99,601	
1893-94 ...	2,31,737	61,014	34,782	5,00,000	21,363	8,48,896	30,205	22,337	3,56,574	32,027	60,312	3,219	1,333	48,020	60,250	...	6,44,637	
1894-95 ...	2,62,224	55,770	37,470	5,50,000	23,001	9,28,475	35,075	23,454	2,16,451	1,10,902	64,416	3,013	1,321	55,105	43,864	...	5,53,572	
1895-96 ...	2,00,515	4,313	55,555	39,598	...	28,203	3,27,962	36,422	25,511	68,919	89,292	72,696	2,870	1,378	1,00,298	68,564	...	4,55,870	
1896-97 ...	16,198	74,912	40,335	...	27,353	3,38,401	33,150	26,737	31,857	62,609	84,904	2,976	1,364	6,22,828	9,23,627	...	9,23,627	
1897-98 ...	14,760	69,084	33,801	...	66,978	3,01,899	35,545	29,094	12,165	74,726	92,701	3,014	1,545	56,459	4,00,403	...	4,00,403	
1898-99 ...	15,041	64,410	44,937	...	40,084	4,02,004	32,607	20,250	13,513	77,292	89,696	9,781	1,557	96,350	4,03,453	...	4,03,453	
1899-1900 ...	15,371	65,392	50,010	...	41,903	4,86,529	36,426	24,796	21,707	77,209	88,490	9,781	1,914	1,43,580	4,44,710	...	4,44,710	
1900-01 ...	16,816	69,849	49,659	...	50,340	5,30,399	77,132	32,930	15,759	77,132	88,490	9,781	1,914	1,43,580	4,44,710	...	4,44,710	
1901-02 ...	16,962	72,045	36,791	2,00,000	94,456	6,30,399	77,132	32,930	15,759	77,132	88,490	9,781	1,914	1,43,580	4,44,710	...	4,44,710	
1902-03 ...	16,203	68,977	37,476	1,00,000	73,875	6,30,399	77,132	32,930	15,759	77,132	88,490	9,781	1,914	1,43,580	4,44,710	...	4,44,710	
1903-04 ...	17,981	66,203	35,235	1,00,000	73,875	6,30,399	77,132	32,930	15,759	77,132	88,490	9,781	1,914	1,43,580	4,44,710	...	4,44,710	
1904-05 ...	15,885	61,890	33,069	1,00,000	1,11,021	6,58,950	40,631	42,237	9,92,140	1,01,744	80,537	1,42,382	5,832	10,461	4,57,513	11,31,741	...	11,31,741
1905-06 ...	21,370	62,431	37,035	1,00,000	1,09,077	6,58,950	40,631	42,237	9,92,140	1,01,744	80,537	1,42,382	5,832	10,461	4,57,513	11,31,741	...	11,31,741
1906-07 ...	18,865	67,217	36,001	1,00,000	1,11,098	7,22,941	41,453	48,494	9,92,140	1,01,744	80,537	1,42,382	5,832	10,461	4,57,513	11,31,741	...	11,31,741
1907-08 ...	19,662	65,001	60,707	...	1,12,566	6,36,213	47,129	21,147	66,075	1,18,723	83,138	8,495	1,504	2,10,955	6,99,399	...	6,99,399	
1908-09	72,481	53,292	...	1,00,624	6,72,106	43,129	34,919	14,708	...	78,495	8,575	1,591	2,11,622	6,48,860	...	6,48,860	
1909-10	
1910-11	
1911-12	
1912-13	
1913-14	
1914-15	
1915-16	
1916-17	
1917-18	
1918-19	

• Water rate.

TABLE XVII.—*Distribution of Police 1907.*

Thana.	Sub- inspec- tors.	Head Con- stables.	Con- stables.	Muni- cipal Police.	Town Police.	Rural Po- lice.	Road Po- lice.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
City. { Kotwali ..	5	9	78	105	..	21	10
{ Colonelganj ..	3	4	42	29
{ Anwarganj ..	2	2	33	13
{ Filkhana ..	1	4	43	10
{ Nawabganj ..	1	3	30	7	2
Cantonment ..	1	7	45	17	..	11	2
Kalyanpur ..	1	1	9	85	14
Bidhnu ..	1	1	9	113	10
Bithur ..	2	1	12	..	11	123	14
Sachendi ..	2	1	12	149	10
Akbarpur ..	2	2	16	..	9	149	16
Gajner ..	1	1	9	142	..
Bilhaur ..	2	2	16	..	8	127	12
Kainjri ..	1	1	6	108	..
Kakwan ..	1	1	6	78	..
Rasulabad ..	1	1	9	101	..
Bhognipur ..	1	2	16	173	..
Musanagar ..	1	1	6	..	6	116	22
Sikandra ..	1	1	12	151	10
Derapur ..	1	2	13	122	2
Mangalpur ..	1	1	9	116	..
Narwal ..	1	2	13	..	3	93	2
Maharajpur ..	1	2	9	160	14
Sarh ..	1	1	6	103	..
Sheorajpur ..	1	2	16	136	6
Sheoli ..	1	1	9	134	..
Ghatampur ..	2	3	16	171	20
Sajeti ..	1	1	6	69	6
Civil Reserve ..	8	21	98
Armed Police ..	3	29	228
Total ..	51	110	832	174	37	2,758	172

TABLE XVIII.—*Education.*

[illegible]

LIST OF SCHOOLS, 1907.

I.—CITY.

Name of school.	Class.	Management.	Average attendance.
Christ Church College	College	S. P. G. ..	84
Agricultural College ..	Technical College ..	Government ..	100
Christ Church College School.	High School ..	S. P. G. ..	266
District School ..	Ditto ..	District Board ..	295
S. P. G. Mission School	Anglo-vernacular Middle.	S. P. G. ..	145
A. M. Central School ..	Ditto ..	American Mission	143
Pandit Pirthi Nath ..	Ditto ..	Private ..	108
Lala Sheo Prasad ..	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	50
Cawnpore Commercial School.	Ditto ..	Local Committee	41
Patwari School ..	Technical ..	Collector ..	42
Sadr Bazar ..	Middle Vernacular..	Private-aided ..	34
Hindu Infants' School	Anglo-vernacular ..	Local Committee	35
A. M. Girls' School ..	Anglo-vernacular Middle.	American Mission	98
S. P. G. Orphanage ..	Ditto ..	S. P. G. ..	77
Hindu Jubilee Girls' School.	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	46
Mary A. Merriman Girls' School.	Ditto ..	American Mission	115
Brahm School ..	Vernacular Primary	Municipal ..	247
Gwaltoli ..	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	31
Shutrkhana ..	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	67
Naughara ..	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	21
Belanganj ..	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	32
Colonelganj ..	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	29
Sadr Bazar ..	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	84
Permit ..	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	28
Raipurwa ..	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	31
Anwarganj ..	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	33
Daulatganj ..	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	25
Baghia Maniram ..	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	59
Kursawan ..	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	56
Sisanian ..	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	25

LIST OF SCHOOLS, 1907--(continued).

II.—DISTRICT.

Tahsil.	Locality.	Class of school.	Average attendance.
Akbarpur ..	Akbarpur ..	Middle Vernacular ..	77
	Ditto ..	Lower Primary ..	84
	Ditto ..	Lower Primary Aided, Girls' ..	16
	Ghalon ..	Upper Primary ..	79
	Gajner ..	Ditto ..	45
	Rura ..	Ditto ..	47
	Do. ..	Lower Primary, Girls' ..	20
	Gahlon ..	Ditto ..	18
	Sarwan Khora ..	Lower Primary ..	24
	Barah ..	Ditto ..	32
	Bhewan ..	Ditto ..	23
	Manethu ..	Ditto ..	6
	Muhammampur ..	Ditto ..	15
	Perajor ..	Ditto ..	16
	Niholi ..	Ditto ..	30
	Sirwa ..	Ditto ..	38
	Patra Sandwa ..	Ditto ..	21
	Rania ..	Ditto ..	33
	Surajpur ..	Lower Primary Aided ..	26
	Tigain ..	Ditto ..	15
	Raipur ..	Ditto ..	22
	Lohari ..	Ditto ..	30
	Nahijunia ..	Ditto ..	14
	Sarai Garhewa ..	Lower Primary Aided, Girls' ..	17
Bilbaur ..	Bilbaur ..	Middle Vernacular ..	60
	Ditto ..	Lower Primary ..	83
	Kainjra ..	Middle Vernacular ..	51
	Ditto ..	Lower Primary ..	68
	Ditto ..	Lower Primary Aided, Girls' ..	1
	Rasulabad ..	Upper Primary ..	33
	Kakwan ..	Ditto ..	40
	Kursi ..	Ditto ..	43
	Pura ..	Ditto ..	58
	Deoha ..	Ditto ..	50
	Asalatganj ..	Ditto ..	43
	Ditto ..	Lower Primary Aided, Girls' ..	13
	Saibasu ..	Ditto ..	21
	Ditto ..	Upper Primary ..	72
	Utri ..	Lower Primary ..	25
	Do. ..	Lower Primary Aided, Girls' ..	14
	Bannapur ..	Ditto ..	16
	Tishti ..	Lower Primary ..	22
	Birhan ..	Ditto ..	21
	Makanpur ..	Ditto ..	24
	Singhauli ..	Ditto ..	4
	Dundwa Jamauli ..	Ditto ..	37
	Nadiha Khurd ..	Ditto ..	31

LIST OF SCHOOLS, 1907—(continued).

II.—DISTRICT—(continued).

Tahsil.	Locality.	Class of School.	Average attendance.
Bilbaur— (concluded).	Bachhna	Lower Primary ..	24
	Kainjri	Ditto ..	22
	Bakothi	Ditto ..	29
	Rahimpur Bisdhan ..	Ditto ..	18
	Rasulpur Dhaursalar ..	Ditto ..	36
	Dhaursalar ..	Lower Primary Aided ..	20
	Khajuri	Ditto ..	26
	Kather	Ditto ..	31
	Rahimpur Karimpur ..	Ditto ..	23
	Baranda	Ditto ..	22
	Bharamau	Ditto ..	25
	Barapur	Ditto ..	19
	Mirzapur Lakutia ..	Ditto ..	16
	Dhalmau	Ditto ..	23
Bhojnipur ..	Pukhrayan	Middle Vernacular ..	33
	Ditto	Lower Primary ..	90
	Ditto	Lower Primary Aided, Girls'. ..	17
	Amrodha	Upper Primary ..	60
	Rasdhan	Ditto ..	48
	Musanagar	Ditto ..	61
	Sikandra	Ditto ..	57
	Baraur	Lower Primary ..	29
	Akorhi	Ditto ..	20
	Rajpur	Ditto ..	26
	Kandhi	Ditto ..	27
	Gurgaon	Ditto ..	25
	Gauri Karan	Ditto ..	38
	Kharsayan	Ditto ..	15
	Khawaja Phul	Lower Primary Aided ..	16
	Deorahat	Ditto ..	16
	Nigohi	Ditto ..	18
	Malasa	Ditto ..	14
	Shahjahanpur	Ditto ..	14
	Kachhgaon	Ditto ..	12
	Mundera	Ditto ..	37
	Bhal	Ditto ..	10
	Aundori	Ditto ..	14
Cawnpore ..	Naubatpur	Ditto ..	17
	Barauli	Ditto ..	23
	Harthapur	Ditto ..	12
	Jaisalpur	Ditto ..	20
	Bithur	Upper Primary ..	62
	Nawabganj	Ditto ..	65
	Maswanpur	Ditto ..	36
	Naubasta	Ditto ..	36
	Sachendi	Ditto ..	56
Cawnpore ..	Majhawan	Ditto ..	19
	Mandhana	Ditto ..	51
	Kathara	Ditto ..	53
	Katharwa	Ditto ..	29

LIST OF SCHOOLS, 1907—(continued).

II.—DISTRICT.—(continued).

Tahsil.	Locality.	Class of School.	Average attend- ance.
Cawnpore— (concluded).	Bidhnu	Upper Primary ..	57
	Kakadeo	Ditto ..	25
	Sapahi	Lower Primary ..	20
	Ditto	Lower Primary Aided, Girls' ..	21
	Sangawan	Ditto ..	12
	Ditto	Lower Primary ..	25
	Juhi Kalan	Ditto ..	28
	Rawatpur	Ditto ..	42
	Binaur	Ditto ..	19
	Bhaunti	Ditto ..	15
	Bhul	Ditto ..	23
	Maqsudabad	Ditto ..	9
	Sheoganj Chaurai	Ditto ..	20
	Bairi Akbarpur	Ditto ..	27
	Mirpur	Ditto ..	29
	Ramaipur	Lower Primary, Aided ..	13
	Udaipur	Ditto ..	25
	Sonan	Ditto ..	23
	Surar	Ditto ..	25
	Mawaiya	Ditto ..	23
	Jamun	Ditto ..	22
	Kandri	Ditto ..	19
	Fatehpur	Ditto ..	13
Derapur ..	Mangalpur	Upper Primary ..	61
	Ditto	Lower Primary, Girls' ..	10
	Derapur	Upper Primary ..	58
	Banipara	Ditto ..	49
	Khanpur Dilwal	Ditto ..	47
	Ratanpur	Ditto ..	22
	Galwapur	Ditto ..	41
	Bijabra	Ditto ..	80
	Mahera	Lower Primary ..	20
	Ditto	Lower Primary Aided, Girls' ..	15
	Nonari	Ditto ..	13
	Ditto	Lower Primary ..	61
	Indrukh	Ditto ..	28
	Jhinjhak	Ditto ..	80
	Aurangabad	Ditto ..	28
	Chilauli	Ditto ..	30
	Sithmara	Ditto ..	20
	Kishaura	Ditto ..	42
	Sargaon	Ditto ..	15
	Bachhit Jassu	Ditto ..	22
	Ursan	Ditto ..	25
	Kurhawal	Ditto ..	24
	Khamaila	Ditto ..	14
	Pindarthu	Ditto ..	32
	Sandalpur	Lower Primary, Aided ..	20
	Paronkh	Ditto ..	13
	Kapasi	Ditto ..	24

LIST OF SCHOOLS, 1907—(continued).

II.—DISTRICT—(continued).

Tahsil.	Locality.	Class of School.	Average attendance.
Derapur — (concluded).	Palhnapur	Lower Primary Aided ..	30
	Sabalpur	Ditto	22
	Bhandemau	Ditto	21
	Lachhmanpur Pilak ..	Ditto	24
	Jendamau	Ditto	26
	Injwa	Ditto	16
	Nar	Ditto	16
	Malgaon	Ditto	29
	Jasapur	Ditto	20
	Garhia	Ditto	20
	Seontha	Ditto	25
	Mangta	Ditto	21
	Rampur Fagiran ..	Ditto	21
	Kamalpur	Ditto	14
	Ditto	Lower Primary Aided, Girls'	7
	Khapur Dilwal	Ditto	18
	Narwal	Middle Vernacular ..	66
	Do.	Lower Primary	78
	Do.	Lower Primary Aided, Girls'	11
Narwal ..	Sarh	Upper Primary	72
	Karbiawan	Ditto	45
	Birhar	Ditto	47
	Tilsabri	Ditto	34
	Harchand Khara ..	Ditto	65
	Sirsaul	Ditto	33
	Sakathia	Ditto	60
	Pali Bhogipur	Ditto	43
	Barai Garhu	Lower Primary	31
	Maharajpur	Ditto	47
	Najafgarh	Ditto	25
	Kulgaon	Ditto	25
	Amaur	Ditto	22
	Gopalpur	Ditto	27
	Birsinghpur	Ditto	20
	Kurni	Ditto	19
	Palhepur	Ditto	16
	Mahuaogaon	Ditto	26
	Hathigaon	Ditto	19
	Kundaali	Ditto	27
	Ditto	Lower Primary Aided, Girls'	18
	Salempur	Lower Primary, Aided ..	22
	Rawatpur	Ditto	23
	Khujauli	Ditto	13
	Banjari	Ditto	21
	Bosar	Ditto	21
Sheorajpur {	Sheorajpur	Middle Vernacular ..	61
	Ditto	Lower Primary	71
	Ditto	Lower Primary Aided, Girls'	10

LIST OF SCHOOLS, 1907--(continued.)

II.—DISTRICT—(continued).

Tahsil.	Locality.	Class of School.	Average attendance.
Shoorajpur —(concluded).	Sheoli	Upper Primary ..	68
	Do.	Lower Primary, Girls' ..	16
	Kashipur	Ditto ..	24
	Ditto	Upper Primary ..	72
	Gauri Bhagwantpur ..	Ditto ..	57
	Ditto	Lower Primary Aided, Girls' ..	24
	Nonari Bahadurpur ..	Ditto ..	14
	Ditto	Upper Primary ..	50
	Sakrej	Ditto ..	26
	Nigoh	Ditto ..	34
	Kakupur	Ditto ..	79
	Baghpur	Ditto ..	45
	Chaubepur	Ditto ..	52
	Bhikhar	Ditto ..	38
	Gabraha	Ditto ..	50
	Hathka	Ditto ..	59
	Ant Raiparpur	Ditto ..	48
	Maitha	Ditto ..	36
	Dalipnagar	Lower Primary ..	18
	Birama	Ditto ..	17
	Mustah	Ditto ..	44
	Lalpur	Ditto ..	20
	Pachaur	Ditto ..	17
	Bairi Sawai	Ditto ..	28
	Gauri Abhaipur	Ditto ..	22
	Radhan	Lower Primary Aided, ..	21
	Kakarmau	Ditto ..	21
	Hindupur	Ditto ..	25
	Rautapur	Ditto ..	10
	Rasput	Ditto ..	6
Ghatampur	Ghatampur	Middle Vernacular ..	39
	Ditto	Lower Primary ..	72
	Patara	Upper Primary ..	56
	Ditto	Lower Primary, Girls' ..	13
	Tilsanda	Upper Primary ..	48
	Rar Pahowa	Ditto ..	58
	Bhadras	Ditto ..	65
	Ditto	Lower Primary Aided, Girls' ..	10
	Padri Lalpur	Ditto ..	14
	Ditto	Upper Primary ..	35
	Itarra	Lower Primary ..	28
	Girsi	Ditto ..	18
	Paras	Ditto ..	17
	Nandana	Ditto ..	27
	Hatoi	Ditto ..	25
	Jahangirabad	Ditto ..	16
	Baripal	Ditto ..	28
	Kurian	Ditto ..	20
	Pasikhora	Ditto ..	37
	Balhapara	Ditto ..	23

LIST OF SCHOOLS, 1907—(concluded).

II.—DISTRICT—(concluded).

Tahsil.	Locality.	Class of School.	Average attend- ance.
Ghatampur —(concluded).	Kaitha	Lower Primary ..	17
	Gujela	Ditto ..	37
	Asdhana	Lower Primary, Aided ..	24
	Kohra	Ditto ..	12
	Bara Daulatpur	Ditto ..	23
	Behra	Ditto ..	11
	Chanwar	Ditto ..	31
	Darauli	Ditto ..	24
	Harbaspur.. ..	Ditto ..	24

ROADS, 1907.

A.—PROVINCIAL.			Miles.	Fur.
(i) Grand Trunk Road, Calcutta to Peshawar	61	3.49
(ii) Cawnpore to Jhansi and Saugor	45	5.53
(iii) Cawnpore to Hamirpur and Saugor	36	.7
(iv) Railway feeder, Pukhrayan	0	0.43
(v) Railway feeder, Lalpur	0	1.57
(vi) Railway feeder, Panki	0	2.27
(vii) Railway feeder, Chakeri	0	3.38
Total	148	0.42
B.—LOCAL.				
<i>I.—First class roads, metalled, bridged and drained throughout.</i>				
(i) Grand Trunk Road, loop line	9	6.48
(ii) Cawnpore Cantonment to Jajmau and Siddhnath	2	2.09
(iii) Cawnpore to Bithur	3	2
(iv) Canal road	3	1.9
(v) Orphanage road	1	2
(vi) Kalyanpur to Bithur	7	7.35
(vii) Bithur Bazar to railway station	0	1.13
(viii) Narwal to Sirsaal	6	7.7
(ix) Akbarpur to Barah	3	3.24
(x) Akbarpur to Mati	3	1
(xi) Akbarpur to Rura	8	0
(xii) Derapur to Rura	10	0
Total	58	2.84
<i>II.A.—Second class roads, unmetalled, bridged and drained throughout.</i>				
(i) Bhaunti to Bhimsen and Bhaupur	5	0
(ii) Rania to Sarwan Khera	5	0
(iii) Barah village road	0	4
(iv) Pukhrayan to Gaur	1	6
(v) Bhognipur to Amrodha	2	0
(vi) Chaura to Amrodha	3	0
(vii) Jhijnhak to Rasulabad	10	0
(viii) Maharajpur to Najafgarh	5	0
(ix) Karbigwan to Bindki	3	0
Total	35	2
<i>II.B.—Second class roads, unmetalled, partially bridged and drained.</i>				
(i) Kalyanpur to Panki	4	0
(ii) Sheoli to Sachondi and Bindki	38	4
(iii) Raipur to Sarwan Khera	6	0
(iv) Old Mughal Road, Kora to Bhognipur and Agra	46	0
(v) Rasulabad to Makanpur	22	0
(vi) Ghatampur to Sarh and Salempur	27	0.32
(vii) Maharajpur to Dipapur and Narwal	9	0
(viii) Purwamir to Karbigwan and Narwal	8	2
(ix) Jajmau to Grand Trunk Road	2	0
Total	162	6.32

ROADS, 1907--(concluded).

V.—Fifth class roads, cleared, or ally bridged and drained,			Miles.	Fur.
(i)	Mughal Road (vide II B. iv)	..	10	0
(ii)	Ghatampur to Akbarpur, Derapur and Etawah	..	47	0
(iii)	Derapur to Kandhi	..	4	0
(iv)	Bhognipur to Akorhi and Bibapur	..	9	0
(v)	Musanagar to Gajner and Sarwan Khara	..	16	0
(vi)	Akbarpur to Rasdhan	..	19	0
(vii)	Jhinghak to Bijamau	..	24	0
(viii)	Derapur to Sikandra	..	12	0
(ix)	Nanamau to Rasulabad	..	26	0
(x)	Bithur to Rasulabad and Bidhuna	..	38	0
(xi)	Sheoli to Kalyanpur (vide VI. 1)	..	17	0
(xii)	Sheoli to Sarai Gang	..	23	4
(xiii)	Sachendi to Bidhnu	..	11	0
(xiv)	Barai Garhu to Narwal and Najafgarh	..	12	0
(xv)	Salempur to Jajmau	..	8	0
(xvi)	Narwal to Tiwaripur	..	7	0
(xvii)	Ahirwan to Narayanpur	..	16	0
Total			299	4
VI—Sixth class roads, cleared only.				
(i)	Sheoli to Kalyanpur (rule V xi)	..	6	0
(ii)	Sheoli to Tigain	..	15	0
(iii)	Akbarpur to Nigohi	..	6	0
(iv)	Derapur to Kandhi	..	6	4
(v)	Rura to Rasulabad	..	14	0
(vi)	Rasulabad to Lehramau	..	4	0
(vii)	Bhaunra to Phaphund	..	23	0
(viii)	Absaria to Aurangabad	..	8	0
(ix)	Budhauri to Ismailnagar	..	6	0
(x)	Deorahat to Gaura	..	7	0
(xi)	Chaparghata to Kalpi	..	10	2
(xii)	Chaparghata to Pukhrayan	..	3	0
(xiii)	Amrodha to Absaria	..	6	0
(xiv)	Pukhrayan to Gajner	..	14	4
(xv)	Pukhrayan to Rasdhan	..	12	0
(xvi)	Rasdhan to Rajpur	..	6	0
(xvii)	Khanpur to Sargaon	..	4	0
(xviii)	Sargaon to Etawah boundary	..	16	0
(xix)	Derapur to Sithnara	..	8	0
(xx)	Mosanagar to Mohana	..	16	2
(xxi)	Makrandpur to Semramau	..	4	0
(xxii)	Srinagar to Baripal and Amauli	..	20	0
(xxiii)	Rampur to Baripal and Kora	..	14	0
(xxiv)	Baripal to Bhadoona	..	16	0
(xxv)	Patara to Benda and Akbarpur Birbal	..	13	0
(xxvi)	Sarh to Kora	..	8	0
(xxvii)	Barai Garhu to Majhawan	..	7	0
(xxviii)	Narwal to Para	..	3	0
(xxix)	Purwamir to Najafgarh	..	7	0
(xxx)	Sapahi to Harbaspur	..	6	0
(xxxi)	Rawatpur to Maswampur	..	2	0
(xxxii)	Makanpur to Araul and Ankin	..	5	0
(xxxiii)	Makanpur to Thatia	..	4	0
(xxxiv)	Bilhaur to Tirwa	..	10	0
Total			310	4
GRAND TOTAL			1,014	8.58

FERRIES, 1907.

River.	Ferry.	Village.	Tahsil.	Management.	In- come.
					Rs.
Ganges	Ankin ..	Hasauli ..	Bilhaur ..	District Board	1,075
	Sajeti Badshah- pur.	Sabiapur ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	450
	Nanamau ..	Nanamau ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	1,200
	Akbarpur Saing	Akbarpur Saing	Do. ..	Do. ..	835
	Sarayan Radhan	Sarai Gang ..	Sheorajpur	Do. ..	1,450
	Bande Mata ..	Atwa ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	900
	Bithur Patkapur	Bithur Kalan ..	Cawnpore ..	Do. ..	1,500
	Rautapur Bagar- ganj.	Nawabganj ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	125
	Permit ..	Cawnpore ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	2,700
	Jajmau ..	Jajmau ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	250
	Dhouri ..	Dhouri ..	Narwal ..	Do. ..	20
	Najafgarh ..	Biposi ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	350
	Domanpur ..	Domanpur ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	130
Pandu ..	Bikru ..	Bhiti Bikru ..	Sheorajpur	Do. ..	35
	Tikra ..	Tikra ..	Cawnpore ..	Do. ..	155
	Fatehpur ..	Fatehpur ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	85
	Kundaoli ..	Kundaoli ..	Nurwal ..	Do. ..	14
	Sichauli ..	Sichauli ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	480
	Nawada Ujagar	Nawada Ujagar	Do. ..	Do. ..	44
	Mahrauli ..	Mahrauli ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	200
	Nangawan ..	Harchand Khara	Do. ..	Do. ..	75
	Chirila ..	Chirila ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	45
	Pauhar ..	Pauhar ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	21
Non ..	Ramel ..	Hingopur ..	Cawnpore ..	Do. ..	1,950
Rind ..	Sirsi ..	Deosar ..	Narwal ..	Do. ..	16
	Birsinghpur ..	Birsinghpur ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	35
	Malkhanpur ..	Malkhanpur ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	16
	Gopalpur ..	Birhar ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	19
	Akbarpur Barwi	Akbarpur Barwi	Do. ..	Do. ..	55
Isan ..	Saraighat ..	Makanpur ..	Bilhaur ..	Do. ..	85
	Pachmahla ..	Bilhaur ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	1,400
Non ..	Nandana ..	Tilsanda ..	Ghatampur	Do. ..	8
	Gauri Manauri	Gauri ..	Do. ..	Do. ..	9
Sengar	Derapur ..	Derapur ..	Derapur ..	Do. ..	206
	Indrukhh ..	Sargaon Khurd	Do. ..	Do. ..	20
	Bihar ..	Kumbhi ..	Akbarpur ..	Do. ..	35
Jumna	Jit: mau ..	Vaheshpur ..	Bhognipur ..	District Board	..
	Raipur ..	Bichhauli ..	Do. ..	Jalaun.	..
	Khargoi ..	Bijamau ..	Do. ..	Do.
	Sareni ..	Bahmai ..	Do. ..	Do.
	Pal ..	Bajhera ..	Do. ..	Do.
	Semra Sheikhpur	Damanpur ..	Do. ..	Do.

FERRIES—(concluded).

River.	Ferry.	Village.	Tahsil.	Management.	In- come.
					Rs.
Jumna—(concluded).	Dahelkhand	.. Nibri	.. Bhognipur..	District Board Jalaun.	..
	Khartala	.. Khartala	.. Do.	.. District Board	10
	Narhan	.. Diwair	.. Do.	.. District Board Jalaun.	..
	Mainupur	.. Teonga	.. Do.	.. Do.	..
	Hirapur	.. Chaura	.. Do.	.. Do.	..
	Kalpi (pontoon bridge).	.. Daulatpur	.. Do.	.. Public Works Department.	..
	Tari Bulda	.. Rasulpur Bhilar	.. Do.	.. District Board Jalaun.	..
	Gulauli	.. Salarpur	.. Do.	.. Do.	..
	Deorahat	.. Deorahat	.. Do.	.. Private	..
	Ahrauli	.. Ahrauli	.. Do.	.. Do.	..
	Bamhrauli	.. Bamhrauli	.. Do.	.. Do.	..
	Bhauri	.. Garahtha	.. Ghatampur	.. District Board	..
	Sikrorhi	.. Hardauli	.. Do.	.. District Board Hamirpur.	..
	Hamirpur	.. Rampur	.. Do.	.. Public Works Department.	..

POST OFFICES, 1907.

Tahsil.	Locality.	Class of office.
Cawnpore ..	Cawnpore	Head Office.
	Cawnpore Anwarganj.. ..	Sub-Office.
	Cawnpore Cantonment	Ditto.
	Cawnpore Chauk	Ditto.
	Cawnpore West	Ditto.
	Cawnpore Collectorganj	Ditto.
	Cawnpore Elgin Mills	Ditto.
	Cawnpore Generalganj	Ditto.
	Cawnpore Mall Road.. ..	Ditto.
	Cawnpore Muir Mills.. ..	Ditto.
	Cawnpore Railganj	Ditto.
	Cawnpore Nawabganj	Ditto.
	Cawnpore Sisamau	Ditto.
	Juhi Kalan	Branch Office.
	Kalyanpur	Ditto.
	Bidhuu	Ditto.
	Kathara	Ditto.
Akbarpur ..	Majhawan.. ..	Ditto.
	Sachendi	Ditto.
	Maswanpur	Ditto.
	Bithur	Ditto.
	Akbar	Sub-Office.
	Rura	Ditto.
Bilhaur ..	Gajner	Branch Office.
	Sarwan Khara	Ditto.
	Gablon	Ditto.
	Bilhaur	Sub-Office.
	Araul	Branch Office.
	Kakwan	Ditto.
	Makanpur	Ditto.
	Saibas	Ditto.
	Rasulabad.. ..	Ditto.
Bhognipur..	Birhan	Ditto.
	Asalatganj.. ..	Ditto.
	Pura	Ditto.
	Kainjri	Ditto.
	Pukhrayan	Sub-Office.
	Sikandra	Branch Office.
	Rasdhan	Ditto.
	Musanagar	Ditto.
Derapur ..	Bhognipur.. ..	Ditto.
	Muhammadpur	Ditto.
	Amrodha	Ditto.
	Satti	Ditto.
	Derapur	Sub-Office.
	Jhinjhak	Ditto.
Derapur ..	Nonari	Branch Office.
	Mangalpur.. ..	Ditto.
	Khanpur Dilwal	Ditto.
	Banipara	Ditto.
	Mahera	Ditto.

POST OFFICES, 1907—(concluded).

Tahsil.	Locality.	Class of office.
Narwal ..	Narwal	Sub-Office.
	Sirsaul	Branch Office.
	Barai Garhu	Ditto.
	Palhepur	Ditto.
	Karbigwan	Ditto.
	Maharajpur	Ditto.
	Najafgarh	Ditto.
	Sarh	Ditto.
Sheorajpur..	Sheorajpur.. ..	Sub-Office.
	Bhaupur	Ditto.
	Chaubepur.. ..	Ditto.
	Baghpur	Branch Office.
	Ghaushampur	Ditto.
	Shcoli	Ditto.
	Kakapur	Ditto.
	Dalipnagar	Ditto.
	Nonari Bahadurpur	Ditto.
	Kashipur	Ditto.
	Raspur	Ditto.
	Maitha	Ditto.
	Mandhana.. ..	Ditto.
Ghatampur..	Ghatampur	Sub-Office.
	Sajeti	Branch Office.
	Tilsanda	Ditto.
	Patara	Ditto.
	Padri Lalpur	Ditto.
	Itarra	Ditto.

MARKETS, 1907.

Tahsil.	Town or village.	Market days.
Akbarpur ..	Akbarpur	Sunday and Wednesday.
	Jigni Purwa	Ditto.
	Jasaura Birsinghpur	Ditto.
	Fatehpur Roshnai	Ditto.
	Karsa	Ditto.
	Gahlon	Sunday and Thursday.
	Mandauli	Ditto.
	Rura	Monday and Wednesday.
	Sonbarsa (Maitha Station),	Monday and Friday.
	Niholi	Ditto.
	Rania	Ditto.
	Barah	Tuesday and Friday.
	Sarwan Khera (Nauniha),	Ditto.
	Raipur Khokhat	Ditto.
	Bhewan	Tuesday and Saturday.
	Bisaikpur	Ditto.
	Banar Alipur	Ditto.
	Gauriapur	Ditto.
	Hasanpur	Ditto.
	Kurwa Khurd	Ditto.
	Gajner	Ditto.
Bilhaur ..	Bilhaur (Dilawarganj) ..	Ditto.
	Ditto (Munshi Jai Narayan).	Monday, Tuesday and Friday
	Ditto (Chhoti Bazar) ..	Sunday and Wednesday.
	Asalatganj	Ditto.
	Usri	Ditto.
	Rasulpur Dhaursalar ..	Sunday, Tuesday and Friday.
	Nadiha Buzurg	Sunday and Thursday.
	Rahimpur Bisdhan	Ditto.
	Araul	Ditto.
	Kakwan	Ditto.
	Nawada Anai	Tuesday, Wednesday and Saturday.
	Makanpur	Monday and Wednesday.
	Tishti	Ditto.
	Naila	Monday and Friday.
	Uttha	Ditto.
	Jot	Tuesday and Friday.
	Kainjri	Ditto.
	Beri Alipur	Tuesday and Saturday.
	Puran Purwa	Ditto.
Bhogniapur ..	Mirzapur Lakutia	Ditto.
	Khera Kursi	Ditto.
	Dundwa Jamauli	Ditto.
	Rasulabad	Thursday and Saturday.
	Makrandpur	Ditto.
	Lalpur	Ditto.
	Pukhrayan	Ditto.

MARKETS, 1907—(continued).

Tahsil.	Town or village.	Market days.
hognipur—(concluded).	Musanagar	Sunday and Wednesday.
	Andwan Haidarpur	Ditto.
	Absaria	Wednesday.
	Sikandra	Friday.
	Rajpur	Sunday and Thursday.
	Harharpur	Ditto.
	Satti	Monday and Friday.
	Khawaja Phul.. ..	Ditto.
	Muhammadpur	Tuesday and Friday.
	Barau	Monday and Wednesday.
Cawnpore ..	Rasdhan	Tuesday and Saturday.
	Kaindha	Sunday and Wednesday.
	Bidhu	Ditto.
	Panki Gangaganj	Ditto.
	Tikra	Ditto.
	Bogdedi	Monday and Friday.
	Maswanpur	Ditto.
	Rawatpur	Ditto.
	Udaipur	Ditto.
	Dhur	Ditto.
	Simbhua	Monday and Wednesday.
	Kalyanpur	Tuesday and Friday.
	Kathara	Ditto.
	Majbawan	Ditto.
	Ramaipur	Tuesday and Saturday.
	Sheoranj Chaurai	Ditto.
	Sen Pachhimpara	Ditto.
	Sachendi	Ditto.
	Bara Sirohi	Ditto.
Derapur ..	Derapur	Ditto.
	Ratanpur	Ditto.
	Nonari	Ditto.
	Mangalpur	Sunday and Wednesday.
	Jhijhak	Ditto.
	Mungisapur	Ditto.
	Palhanpur	Sunday and Thursday.
	Banipara	Ditto.
	Sandalpur	Monday and Wednesday.
	Khanpur Dilwal	Monday and Friday.
	Galwapur	Ditto.
	Sithmara	Tuesday and Friday.
Narwal ..	Sargaon Buzurg	Ditto.
	Narwal	Ditto.
	Tilsabri	Ditto.
	Barai Garhu	Monday and Wednesday.
	Phuphar	Ditto.
	Najafgarh	Ditto.
	Palhepur	Sunday and Thursday.

MARKETS, 1907—(concluded).

Tahsil.	Town or village.	Market days.
Narwal—(concluded).	Sirsaul	Tuesday and Saturday.
	Maharajpur	Thursday and Saturday.
	Pali Bhojpur	Ditto.
	Harchand Khara (Nau-gawan)	Sunday and Wednesday.
	Sakathia	Ditto.
Sheorajpur ..	Chaubepur	Ditto.
	Kakupur	Monday and Wednesday.
	Mandhana	Monday and Friday.
	Jagdispur	Tuesday and Friday.
	Aunti	Thursday and Saturday.
	Maitha	Ditto.
Ghatampur ..	Patara	Ditto.
	Nauranga	Sunday and Wednesday.
	Daulatpur	Ditto.
	Girsi	Ditto.
	Tilsanda	Monday and Wednesday.
	Baripal	Monday and Friday.
	Padri Lalpur	Tuesday and Friday.
	Reona	Ditto.
	Sajoti	Sunday and Thursday.

FAIRS, 1907.

Tahsil.	Locality.	Name of fair.	Date.	Approximate average attendance.
Akbarpur ..	Gajner ..	Ghazi Pir ..	1st Sunday in Jeth	20,000
Bilhaur ..	Makanpur ..	Basant ..	Magh Sudi 5th ..	100,000
Bhognipur	Zainpur ..	Mahabir ..	Last Tuesday in Bhadon.	5,000
Cawnpore	Cawnpore ..	Ramlila ..	Kuar Sudi 10th ..	16,000
	Sachendi ..	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	2,000
	Bithur ..	Ganga Ashnan ..	Kartik Sudi 15th ..	80,000
	Ditto ..	Sankrant ..	Pus Sudi 11th ..	10,000
	Ditto ..	Jeth Dasahra ..	Jeth Sudi 10th ..	5,000
	Bazidpur ..	Siddhnath ..	Every Monday in Sawan.	2,000
	Hasanpur ..	Bhuteshwar ..	Chait Badi 6th ..	3,000
	Juhi Kalan ..	Barah Devi ..	Chait Sudi 8th ..	20,000
Derapur ..	Banipara ..	Sheoratri ..	3rd Sunday in Phagun.	3,000
Narwal ..	Sirsaul ..	Ramlila ..	Chait Sudi 9th ..	600
	Palbepur ..	Ditto ..	Kartik Badi 13th ..	700
	Mandhana ..	Ditto ..	Kuar Sudi 10th ..	800
	Kundni ..	Hanuman ..	Every Tuesday in Baisakh.	1,000
	Ditto ..	Dangol ..	1st Tuesday in Bhadon	800
	Barai Garhu ..	Ghauri Devi ..	Bhadon Sudi 3rd ..	700
	Birhar ..	Kali ..	Bhadon Badi 12th ..	500
	Pali Bhogipur ..	Devi ..	Chait Badi 8th ..	500
	Chandanpur ..	Ditto ..	Baisakh Badi 15th ..	500
	Parauli ..	Ditto ..	Chait Badi 8th ..	500
	Tilsahri Khurd ..	Nanda Devi ..	Ditto ..	800
	Bambhi Bhitri ..	Devi ..	Chait Badi 2nd ..	800
	Aima (Jahan-girpur) ..	Devi Paksha ..	Chait Badi 8th ..	500
	Bhitargaon ..	Kansila ..	Aghan Badi 7th ..	2,000
	Behta Sakat ..	Deothan ..	Kartik Sudi 11th ..	500
Sheorajpur.	Tajpur ..	Mahabir ..	1st Tuesday in Baisakh.	800
	Dhonri ..	Janamashtmi ..	Bhadon Badi 8th ..	500
	Baradari ..	Muhabbat Shah ..	Chait Badi 11th ..	800
	Chaubepur ..	Kansila ..	Kartik Badi 6th ..	15,000
	Dodepur ..	Ditto ..	Chait Sudi 11th ..	3,000
	Kishanpur ..	Mahabir ..	1st Tuesday in Aghan Sudi ..	2,000
	Atwa ..	Bande Mata ..	Jeth Sudi 10th ..	2,000
	Ohhatarpur ..	Kheri ..	Ditto ..	2,000
	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	Phagun Badi 14th ..	10,000
	Ditto ..	Ditto ..	Kartik Sudi 15th ..	1,500
Ghatampur.	Patara ..	Naghelin Devi ..	Chait Badi 8th ..	2,000
	Akbarpur Birbal ..	Jamdutya ..	Kartik Sudi 2nd ..	4,000

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